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### School Inspection

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# SCHOOL INSPECTION



By  
**Cornelius G. Kolff**

EDUCATION



LIVRE DE LYON

Lyon 2020

# SCHOOL INSPECTION

By

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## SCHOOL INSPECTION.

The following observations and suggestions on the inspection and examination of Elementary Schools, which were written, and are now printed, at the joint request of the Chairman of the School Board in one of the most populous boroughs in the kingdom, and of one of the members in Parliament for that borough, are based on the results of the experience of ten years, from 1860 to 1870, during which I was acting as one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

D. R. Fearon.

EASTER, 1876.



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## SCHOOL INSPECTION.

1. *Inspection and Examination: what they Mean.*—The proper scrutiny of an Elementary School consists of two principal parts, viz. *inspection* and *examination*. By “inspection” is meant the process of seeing a school at work in the course of its ordinary routine ; noting how it is constructed, warmed, drained, ventilated, furnished, and supplied with apparatus and other materials ; how its journals, registers, and other records are kept ; what is the course of education, physical and intellectual, which it supplies to its scholars ; whether it is conducted on the most approved methods for economizing time and labour ; what is the order and discipline ; what the relations of the scholars, to their teachers and to one another ; how the teachers give their lessons, and how in other respects they are qualified to perform, and do perform their duties. By “examination ” is meant the process of testing, by written and oral questioning of the scholars, whether the results of the instruction given in the school are satisfactory,

2. *Why Both are Necessary.*—Some persons maintain that if a school is thoroughly examined, there is little or no need for inspection. Others say (or used to say), that if a school is carefully inspected, there is little need for examination. Both these conclusions are, in my judgment, erroneous. Even if the duty of an inspector were only to find fault, examination would be by itself an imperfect test of a school. But I think there can be no doubt that his duty is quite as much to suggest *how faults should be amended*, as to find them out and report them. Managers and teachers ought to look forward to the visit of an inspector, not only with anxiety lest faults should be found, but also with hope, and an expectation that he will suggest means

of overcoming difficulties and amending defects. And examination without inspection will never enable an inspector to do this. Moreover, examination of children, even in the hands of the most experienced and patient of inspectors, is not an infallible test. Many an inspector's judgment formed on examination has been corrected, illustrated, or confirmed by inspection ; and many a teacher, who, if his school had been only examined, would have set his failures down to bad luck, has been convinced by a thorough but kindly inspection, that he has only himself to blame for them, and that it is his own fault if such failures ever recur. And it is an equal, or a worse, mistake to depreciate the importance of examination. *No one can be certain of the results of teaching on children, until those results have been tested by examination.* The capacity of children for receiving and retaining knowledge is so very various ; the roads by which knowledge comes home to different children, and to the same children at different times, are so different, that no one can venture to say that any given child has apprehended, until he has proved by examination that it does apprehend. Education, unfortunately, is an art which is subject to so many delusions, that teachers whose work is not tested by examination as well as by inspection will be sure to deceive both themselves and the inspector. But the combination of careful and intelligent inspection with judicious and thorough examination obviates the defects which belong to either system separately, and renders the tests whereby an experienced inspector is enabled to judge of the work of a school as sure and perfect as the means of forming any human judgment on such materials can well be rendered.

3. *Why a School should be Inspected before it is Examined.*—  
Inspection should precede examination :—

*First*, because if he inspects a school before examining it, an inspector will find when he comes to the examination that he has already obtained much information about the school, which will help him to estimate rightly the value of the answers given and the work done by the children in the examination. He will have seen much that will show him when and where he ought to make allowance, and when and where he may be righteously severe.

*Secondly*, because the scholars having become used to his voice and presence during the inspection, will be less shy, timid, or excited when they come to their examination, and less likely to do themselves injustice.

*Thirdly*, because examination causes so much derangement of the ordinary routine of a school, that when it is begun no fair judgment can be formed of what would be the discipline and other conditions of the school if the ordinary routine had not been interrupted. The finer points of the teachers' relations with their scholars, and of the tone of the school, must be missed, under the pressure and excitement of an examination.

*Fourthly*, because, in as much as the grant to the school depends much less directly on inspection than on examination, both teachers and inspectors will be apt to slur the inspection over, and go through it in a perfunctory way, if it is left to take its chance of what time and strength there may be left to spare at the end of a long and fatiguing day. There is little or no fear of the examination for the grant being so slurred over.

And, *fifthly*, to go to a matter of detail, because, in the case of a small school where inspection and examination are both taken on the same day, if inspection is taken first, the elder children, who can be better relied upon to return to school in the afternoon, can be dismissed as soon as the inspection is ended

at about eleven or half-past eleven o'clock, to get their dinner and to rest, while the examination of the younger children is being conducted with a view to their being dismissed altogether about one, or half-past one o'clock. This will be found a most useful plan, particularly in cases where an inspector has to inspect and examine a small school single-handed ; as not only does it save all the children from exhaustion, but also gives more space and quiet to those who are under examination.

In the case of a large school, where inspection and examination cannot both be got through in the same day, it may sometimes be necessary to take examination first ; as, for example, where children who have left the school during the preceding year for employment, or for schools in another locality, are recalled for the purpose of being examined., But even this necessity may generally be prevented by a little forethought and care on the part of the inspector, if he gives the managers notice beforehand of the course he intends to pursue. And it may be taken as a general rule, to which the exceptions should be as few as possible, that inspection should precede examination.

4. *Pupil-Teachers should be Examined before the Inspection.* — The examination, however, of the candidates and pupil-teachers employed, in the school should have preceded the inspector's visit to the school. For, as I shall show presently, it is a most important part of an inspector's duty to take with him to the school the papers which have been worked by the pupil-teachers at such examination, and to speak to them, and to the principal teacher, on their merits and defects. Nothing can be more useful to the pupil-teachers and to their instructor than that the inspector should have an opportunity of actually showing them what answers have been made to the ques-

tions set in examination. And the fear of having their blunders so brought home to them will produce painstaking in young teachers, who are too often callous to warnings which come in dry and terse terms from Whitehall.

5. *Preparation for Inspection.*—I proceed, then, to treat of these two parts of an inspector's work, viz., inspection and examination. And, first of all, it may be assumed that he is aware of the importance of his being early at a school, and is therefore an early riser, and ready either to breakfast at eight, or to take a journey before breakfast, so as to be at his school betimes. Let us suppose him coming to a large town school of three departments,—boys, girls, and infants. He is there by 9.30 or 10 at latest. By means of a circular, which he sends round to every school on his list, his district is aware of his method, and there is no uncertainty, doubt, or anxiety as to how he will proceed. Consequently, when he reaches the school, he finds it working without disorder or derangement in its usual routine, all the teachers and their classes being engaged on the work which the time-table shows they ought to be doing at that particular hour. The time-table itself is, of course, hung in a conspicuous place upon the wall, and it is only necessary that the inspector should go up and look at it in order to be able to understand what is going on at the moment of his arrival. Except that, of course, he interchanges salutations with the principal teacher, no interruption is caused in the work by his arrival. His circular has announced that the work of the school should, when he arrives, be proceeding, and should after his arrival continue to proceed, until he calls for a change, according to the time-table ; and that the log-book, registers, and all other records of the school, together with the returns required by the Education Department, should be lying ready on the table or desk

; that the order and discipline of the school will be chiefly judged by observation of the working of the school under its own teachers, in its regular routine ; and that, therefore, if the managers permit the presence of visitors at the inspection, it is most important that they should request them to be perfectly silent, and to place themselves in such a position as will least interfere with the routine of the school ; that he will endeavour to give the children an interval, and to save them from unnecessary fatigue and excitement ; but that, as he cannot always undertake not to detain them beyond their usual dinner-hour, the children should be cautioned to come to school on the day of inspection provided with food.

6. *Inspection of the Infant School.*—If, as I have supposed, the school consists of three departments, the inspector's plan will be to take the infants' department first, because its scholars will be less able than those of the upper departments to bear the strain of expectation. I will suppose, then, that he has made arrangements to do this ; and that, on arriving at the school, he proceeds first to the infants' department, where they are expecting him. If the principal teacher is a stranger to him, and, on this account, or from his knowledge of her derived from previous inspections, he has reason to think she is nervous, he will endeavour to remove her nervousness, and that of her pupil-teachers and scholars (for the nervousness of a principal teacher is sure to communicate itself to her scholars and her subordinates), by finding something in the school about which he can say a kindly and cheery word. An inspector of any tact can always find something on coming into a school, such as the cleanness of the floor, or the large attendance, on which he can bestow a word of praise, so as to take away the teacher's fear, or overcome

the stiffness which is felt at the beginning of an inspection. As a general rule, however, it may be said that if an inspector has a reasonable amount of good nature, only the bad teachers in his district will be nervous. Ignorant, eye-serving, and incompetent teachers will always be nervous, because they fear detection. But teachers who know their business, and are on those good terms with their scholars and their subordinates which can only be established by thoroughness and competency, are not nervous.

I will, for the sake of illustrating how the work of inspection should proceed, suppose that the infant school is worked by a principal teacher, with the assistance of three pupil-teachers, of whom one is at the end of the fifth, one of the third, and one of the first year of apprenticeship ; and that there are three candidates for pupil-teachership. In inspecting this, as in the case of every other school, the inspector will have two main things to which he must look. First, he must look to the *order of the school*, under which term are included the discipline, the drill, the musical and other exercises, and the means taken for economising time, and for avoiding confusion in giving lessons, and in changing from one lesson to another. He must also look to the *method of the school*, under which term are included the system and practice of delivering lessons, the various modes of working the different subjects of instruction in groups or classes, and the means taken to train the pupil-teachers, and to make the scholars learn.

7. *How Order is to be Tested.*—Having, as I have supposed, exchanged a few words with the principal teacher, and seen that his materials, logbook, registers, &c., are all at hand, so as to be available without again interrupting the school, the inspector will proceed to apply himself to the first part of inspection,

*viz., order.* If his assistant is with him, he will set him to test the registers, and examine into other matters of technical detail at the table or desk. Meantime, he will place himself in some place, where he can, without unduly attracting the observation of the teachers and their classes, quietly watch what goes on; and thus he will proceed to note the school at work. In less than five minutes, if the teachers are prepared for his mode of procedure, the scholars will have forgotten his presence, and will be at work as cheerily and naturally as possible under their teachers. How long he will find it to be necessary to watch this ordinary life of the school depends on circumstances; but if the timetable shows that a change is at hand within a reasonable period, it is well that he should continue so to watch till the change is completed. There is no such tell-tale of the discipline, order, tone, and common sense of a school as the change. Is it made quickly and quietly? Does everyone seem to know her business, and do it in a simple but self-reliant manner? Are books and slates distributed or collected and put away without noise and confusion? Do the scholars leave the desks for the floor, or the floor for the desks, and are they grouped in the gallery for collective lessons, or broken up into classes for reading or arithmetic, without any misunderstanding? And through it all, does the principal teacher keep her place and control the school by a look, a gesture, or a quiet word? If so, there cannot be much amiss with the order of that school.

8. *How Method is to be Tested.*—If, on looking at the timetable, the inspector sees that a change is not to take place for something like a quarter of an hour, he will leave his post of observation after a few minutes, and proceed to look into the second part of inspection, *viz., method*; taking care to return to his post in time to watch the change. What, then, is his duty

in proceeding to test method in the case of the infant school which I have supposed ? If the principal teacher is unknown to him, or a probationer, it will be necessary to see her take a class, and hear her give a gallery lesson. And in an infant school, where gallery lessons form so large and important a part of the work, this last will be almost always desirable.

9. *Mistakes in Teaching Infant Classes.*—In inspecting the class teaching of an infant school the inspector will bear in mind what are the errors most frequently committed by unskilled teachers, and will look to see whether the principal teacher herself avoids those errors, and trains her pupil-teachers to avoid them. Such errors are, for example,—

(1). *Not Keeping a Class in Good Order.*—When infants are called out in drafts on the floor, as, for instance, for the purpose of a reading lesson, a chalk line should be drawn on the floor, and they should be made to stand carefully and steadily to that line. All fidgeting and ugly little habits, all lounging, slovenly ways of standing and sitting at lessons, should be checked with the most scrupulous care in an infant school, while such habits are yet unsettled, and are therefore more easily eradicated than they will be found to be in the upper schools. The utmost attention should be paid to the mode of holding books, slates, and pencils—to the manner of rising up and sitting down, and to all the postures and movements of the children in class, and when changing from one lesson to another.

(2). *Not Making the Children Speak out.*—This is a common but a most easily cured fault in infant schools. If the inspector, or his assistant, when he comes to examine the infants in reading, calls them up one by one to a table, as is sometimes done, he will, by such a practice, greatly encourage the fault of not making the children speak out. But if he insists on making the

children, who are presented to him for individual examination in reading, read in their classes at a reasonable distance from him, and requires them to follow on, and to find and keep their place in a reading book, he will soon check this fault. All individual examination should, as far as possible, be done as part of class examination.

(3). *Moving to the Children and Touching them, instead of taking up a well-chosen Position and Controlling them from that Position by the Voice and Eye.*—This is a most common fault in young teachers. And a good way for the principal teacher to correct it in her pupil-teachers and candidates is to make them, when taking a class, or giving collective lessons, stand behind a small desk. If a small reading desk is placed in front of any young teacher who has the fault, and she is required not to leave it, she will soon break herself of this bad habit. Every school ought to be furnished with one of these desks, capable of being raised and lowered, to suit the various teachers' height, for every teacher in the school. But, failing such a desk, a chair may serve the purpose, if turned

round, so that its back may form a barrier to the young teacher, and give her something to grasp with her hands.

(4). *Allowing the Children to Recite, or Read, Simultaneously, or Individually, in a Monotonous, or as it is sometimes called, a Sing-song, Voice.*-- Exercise in simultaneous reading is of the greatest importance in an infant school, if properly used: but it is a mode of teaching which is liable to great abuse, and when abused it is worse than useless, and positively injurious. If in the simultaneous part of the reading lesson the children do not imitate the voice and accent of the teacher, but repeat after her in a monotonous tone; or if part of the class is lazy, and catches up the words repeated by the diligent children in a perfunctory

manner, such simultaneous teaching is positively harmful. But I defer the suggestions which I wish to make on the teaching of reading till I come to treat of this subject as part of the inspection of the upper schools.

All such faults as these the inspector will of course expect the principal teacher to avoid; and, if she is a probationer, he will not issue her certificate until they are amended. When once the training colleges come to see that teachers do not get their certificates if they have these faults, they will pay more attention to the work of their students in the practising schools. By similar tests, graduated in severity, the inspector will test the class teaching of the pupil-teachers and candidates. A fifth year pupil-teacher should have thoroughly, and a fourth year pupil-teacher very nearly, mastered all these rudimentary points in class teaching. And no certificate of fitness to conduct a small rural school should ever be given to a fifth year pupil-teacher who fails in these matters, or who has not got a proper control of children. Of the rest of inspection of class teaching, viz., by pupil-teachers and candidates, I will speak when I come to the upper schools (see § 15).

10. *Gallery Lessons in Infant Schools.*—Whether the principal teacher is a probationer, or known to him or not, it will probably be desirable that the inspector should hear her give a *gallery lesson*. Young teachers of infant schools are sometimes apt to think they can do this well, but have generally much to learn in it. And older teachers, unless called upon by the inspector to give such lessons, are apt to get careless and slovenly in them. There are few parts of the teacher's art in which practice is more important, or in which time and trouble are more often misspent. I have seen a gallery lesson given in an infant school, in a great town, by a teacher newly come from

a training college, to a class of twenty or thirty children, averaging from five to seven years, with one or two lady managers sitting by in smiling satisfaction, which was perfectly useless as a means of education. The children did not understand half the words that were used, and though they preserved a grave and apparently attentive demeanour, they were unable, within two minutes of the end of the lesson, to answer the most rudimentary questions on the lesson, or, in fact, to tell one word of what the teacher had been talking to them about.

11. *Mistakes in Gallery Lessons.*—In inspecting a collective or gallery lesson, whether given by the principal teacher or by one of the senior pupil-teachers in the infant school, the inspector will bear in mind those faults which his experience teaches him are most commonly made by teachers in giving such lessons, and will look carefully to see how far the teacher whose work he is inspecting is free from them. The following may be mentioned as among the most common of such faults:—

(1). *As to the Matter of the Lesson.*—(a) *Not Preparing the Lesson carefully Beforehand.*—No collective lesson ought ever to be given, no matter how simple the subject may be, without preparation. One of the most distinguished and successful of the head-masters of our public schools once told me that he never felt it right to give a lesson to his sixth-form, even in so well-known an author as Virgil, without preparation. Yet he is one of the best scholars in the country, and must be familiar with almost every line of that author. And no doubt this is the right view for a teacher to take of the work of teaching. If an infant school teacher does not carefully prepare her collective lesson, the result is very soon apparent to an on-looker. The unprepared lesson will be unmethodical, ill-arranged, show-

ing want of reflection and resource, and generally inadequate to the subject and the occasion. Teachers who do not prepare their lessons become more and more inefficient, instead of improving, as time goes on. *Every teacher should keep a note-book, to be used on purpose for the preparation of lessons.* And the inspector should, when he inspects the infant school, inquire whether the principal teacher keeps such a book and accustoms her pupil-teachers who have passed their third year to do the same. And he should ask to see these note-books, in order that he may form some opinion of what is the work which has been done by the teachers in the infant school by way of preparation for the instruction to be given to their scholars. If no such notes are kept or forthcoming, the inspector will ask a few questions, such as, “ On what subjects have you given object lessons, or lessons in Natural History, or any collective or gallery lessons during the past year ? ” Then taking one of those lessons which has been recently delivered, he will inquire what steps the teacher took to prepare for delivering that lesson. If no such preparation appears to have been made, the inspector will of course call attention to this grave defect in his report. And if it appears that some attempts have been made to prepare, but that no notes have been taken or kept of such preparation, the inspector will point out the advantages of taking and keeping such notes, not only for the sake of the scholars, but also for the sake of training young pupil-teachers. The preparation note-book of an experienced teacher is a most valuable aid to a young pupil-teacher in teaching her how to prepare for a lesson, where to go for her materials, and how to manage them. It is also most useful to the inspector when he comes to ask the upper classes of the infant school questions on the gallery lessons which have been given them

during the last few months; because, if the preparation note-book is put into his hands, he can see exactly what the children are supposed to have been taught, and on what it may be fairly expected that they should answer his questions. Every time that a lesson is given from the notes entered in the note-book the date of such delivery of the lesson should be affixed to the notes. This will not only help the teacher in reviewing or going over back work, but will also serve as a guide to the inspector in weighing the results of any examination, conducted either by himself or by the teacher on his behalf and in his presence.

(b) Another fault which may be noticed under this heading is that of *not giving a Lesson in plain, homely Language, or dwelling on those Points in it which come home to the Children.* This is not an uncommon fault of object lessons. Such lessons sometimes consist of little more than a string of attributes, described in long names of Greek or Latin origin. It is scarcely necessary to say that such lessons are worthless, and disgust children with their school. The inspector will notice whether the class in coming to its gallery lesson is lively or dull. If the gallery lessons given in a school are good, the children will come to them with a sense of pleasure ; they will know they are going to hear something interesting, and will be on the tiptoe of expectation. But if all that is going to be done with them is to hold up a piece of coal, or of wool, before them, to tell them its properties in long outlandish words, and to expect them to repeat those words after the teacher, they will of course be listless and dull. The curiosity of the young is so great, their desire for information on matters which interest them is so keen, that a teacher who takes pains will have no difficulty whatever in rousing them. Her difficulty will rather be to moderate their excitement. No object lesson should ever be given without the

accompaniment of a little story or anecdote. This will not only help to fix the information given by the lesson in the children's minds, but will be repeated by many of them to their parents at home, and will serve to interest the parents in the work of the school.

(c) Another fault which may be mentioned under this heading is that *some teachers do not make the most of their resources*. I have known an infant school teacher complain that the managers did not furnish her with an object-box, and give that as an excuse for not having delivered any object lessons during the course of the past year, while all the time there were pictures hanging on the walls of the school-room from which she might have given a course to last several years, and while the county all round was teeming with natural and artificial objects of interest. I remember once, in the county of Durham, taking down from the wall of an infant school an excellent coloured print of a rhinoceros, and asking the first class, who were chiefly pitmen's children and fairly intelligent, some questions about it. Not one of them knew what it meant ; they had never been told anything about it. At last, after a careful and wondering study, one little boy said " It's a coodie," meaning thereby a donkey ; *cuddy* being in the Durham dialect the equivalent of *Cuthbert*, by which title, for obvious reasons, the donkey is there known. One would scarcely have thought it possible that a teacher of infants should have spent a year in working with them, in a room where there was such a picture, and not have talked to them at all about it. But no one who has not been an inspector of schools can imagine how wanting in resource, adaptation, and the general power of making the most of their materials some of our trained teachers are.

(2). *As to the Manner of the Lesson.*—The inspector will look to see whether the class is under proper control and whether it is judiciously arranged in the gallery ; whether the older and more steady children are put at the back, and the younger children in front, so as to be nearer to the teacher ; whether the teacher takes up a good position before the class and keeps it. I have seen a teacher, when delivering a gallery lesson, walk up and down in front of the class the whole time of the lesson, like a wild creature in its den at the Zoological Gardens, thus always having her back towards some portion of her class. It is hardly necessary so say how bad such a practice is for all concerned, both teachers and scholars. The inspector will also look to see whether the apparatus required for the purpose of the lesson, such as a picture, is properly placed, in a good light, and so that all the class can see it readily. He will notice whether the teacher shows too little vigour, or misdirected vigour ; whether she makes her voice reach all the class clearly, without screaming or unduly raising it. He will carefully note all these and similar faults, and will speak to the teacher about them, as well as about her merits, at the close of the day's inspection.

12. *Gallery Lessons by Pupil-Teachers.*—If there is a fourth or fifth year pupil-teacher in the school, it is essential to hear her give a gallery-lesson. The previous pupil-teacher examination should have given, as notes for a lesson, a choice of two or three subjects suitable to infants. The inspector will make a point of having looked over the pupil-teacher's work before he comes to the school ; and he will do well to require fourth and fifth year pupil-teachers to hold themselves in readiness to give one of the lessons for which notes have been written at the examination. Only so can theory and practice be prop-

erly connected. No inexperienced person would believe how they become disconnected in some teachers' minds. I have known a school in which "notes of lessons" were regularly prepared by the pupil-teachers for the principal teacher, but in which no one such lesson was ever delivered. Incredible as it may seem, I found, on inquiry, that no lesson was ever given from the notes prepared, and no notes were ever prepared for the lesson actually given. In well-written notes of a lesson, the teacher has the class, in her mind's eye, always before her, and the spirit of practice breathes through the written notes. The inspector will give notice at the previous collective examination of pupil-teachers that fourth and fifth year pupil-teachers must be prepared not only to deliver a lesson if required from the notes written at the examination, but also to hand in to him some half-dozen copies of notes, made during the past year, from which he can select a lesson to be given. If a pupil-teacher has written bad notes, at the examination, nothing will bring home her defects more to her and to the principal than making her try to deliver a lesson from them. And of course it would not be fair to take those notes only as the invariable test, because notes for a lesson require, and ought to imply, careful thought and study beforehand ; so that those written at an examination are after all but an imperfect test of what the pupil-teacher could do for her class, in the quiet and leisure of her own room. The inspector will require the principal to be with him when a fourth or fifth year pupil-teacher gives her lesson. And he will do well after having carefully taken his notes, to ask the principal such questions as these—"What observations do you make on that lesson ?" "What faults do you find ?" "What was good ?" This will make her realize and turn her

attention to correct her pupil- teachers' faults in the course of the year.

13. *Examination of the Infant School.*—Having finished his *inspection* of the infant school, that is to say, having satisfied himself of its condition as to order, method, arrangements, the teaching power of the principal, and assistant, certificated teachers, and the means taken to train the pupil- teachers, the inspector will proceed to his *examination*. It may be said—“Surely you cannot examine infants.” “What can there be to examine infants in ?” Of course in an infant school inspection is a proportionately greater affair than in an upper school, and examination is comparatively unimportant. Still even here examination is necessary and valuable. The subjects of examination will be such as—*First*, the reading, writing, and arithmetic of the older children. *They should all begin to learn the multiplication table as soon as possible, and to learn it as accurately as possible. Next*, recitation, that is saying by heart passages from the poets and from standard authors ; the importance of which cannot be over-rated. *Next*, the collective lessons of the past year. The inspector will take into his hands the preparation note-book of the teachers (see § 11) ; and, by questioning the children himself, and by requiring the teachers also to question them, will very soon find out whether good work has been done in gallery lessons during the past year. He will also look to the manual and other exercises of the scholars, whether accompanied by singing or not. A list of these exercises should be placed up in the school, so that he may be able to call for any one of them, and that the teachers may be reminded to practise and go through them regularly.

The inspector will not forget that, when once he has begun the examination of the scholars, he is to a certain, though only

a partial, extent responsible for the order and discipline of the school. When the routine of the children's work has been altered, and the inspector is himself addressing them, and otherwise taking their classes into his own management, it would be most unfair to find fault with the teacher for any little defects of order. The intervention of a third person between the teacher and the scholars must be regarded as transferring part at least of the responsibility for the order of the school to that person. And this will be more the case in an infant school than in an upper school, as the children are younger, and have acquired less settled habits of self-control. Indeed it will, in an infant school, be more often desirable that the inspector should require the teachers to conduct the examination for him, than that he should attempt to do it himself. Very few men examine infants really well. Women are naturally much better qualified for such a task. As a general rule, an inspector may be content if, knowing what ought to be done in an infant school, and what may fairly be expected of the scholars, he gets the teachers to act under his orders for the examination of the children in the results of the instruction which has been given to them.

14. —*Conference with the Teachers.*—When the inspection of the school and the examination of the children are ended, and the children have all been dismissed, the inspector will call to him the whole staff of the school, for the purpose of remarking on the papers worked by the pupil-teachers at the collective examination ; of commenting on their faults and merits as teachers, as shown by the inspection and examination; and, as far as possible, of telling them how to amend such defects. I look upon this process, for which the inspector will be careful to allow time, as one of the most valuable parts of his

duties. But as a more complete account of the process can be given in connexion with upper schools, I defer my suggestions on this matter till I come to treat of the inspection of the boys' department. (See § 59.)

15. *Inspection of the Boys' School.*—Having finished his inspection and examination of the infant school, the inspector will proceed to the upper schools, taking the girls' school first, unless otherwise arranged with the teachers. But, as the inspection of the girls' school will be the same, except in respect of needlework, as that of the boys, while that of the boys will give a more complete account, I will suppose the girls' school done, and that the inspector is now going to begin with the boys. It is understood that while he has been inspecting the girls' school, his assistant has been examining the boys' school in the elements, and *vice versâ*. In the boys' school, as in the infant school, the circular (see § 5) has prepared all for their part, and he finds the school, when he enters it, proceeding in its ordinary way. No derangement of the routine takes place, except such slight derangement as is caused by the presence to-day, for the purpose of being examined, of children who have left school, or who would not ordinarily be present but for the examination. This rule, that the school shall be going on in its ordinary way until disturbed by the inspector, is a vital thing. If work is suspended, and the children are sitting idle, in eager expectation, order cannot be preserved, the tone is lost, and the highly-strung nerves of children and young teachers break down. Moreover, owing to accidents of road and rail, the most punctual of inspectors may be late. If the school work is going forward in the ordinary way, the evils of an accidental unpunctuality are reduced to a minimum. But, if not,

the injury done to the prospects of the school for that year's examination may be most serious.

16. —*How the Inspection should be Begun.*— On entering the boys' school, the inspector will begin his inspection by watching for some little time, as before described for the infant school (see § 7), the school at work. There is no loss of time in doing this. The assistant is either doing some mechanical work for him, such as testing the Registers, or is examining in the elementary subjects in another department, or is finishing another school in the same town. In the case of a boys' school, there will be some difference in the method of inspection, according as the school is a small or large one. If it is a small one, consisting only (say) of a principal teacher, and two pupil-teachers, the principal teacher must always be taking a large share in the actual work of teaching ; the amount of superintendence which he will have to do will be comparatively small; the school will depend for its instruction mainly on his own exertions; and the inspector accordingly will have to watch how he teaches, quite as much as how the pupil-teachers teach. But in a large school, consisting (say) of a principal and an assistant certificated teacher, with five pupil-teachers, and three candidates, the case is different. Here the principal teacher must, during the year, have been largely concerned with superintending and directing, rather than with actually imparting knowledge. Not that a good and active teacher will ever fail to take some teaching work himself, both to keep his own hand in, and also to raise the standard of teaching and set an example. But still his main business, if his staff is fairly efficient, will have been superintendence and not teaching. And the inspector accordingly will be able to have him by his side as he goes through

the school, to reply to any questions, to assist his judgment, and to give any necessary orders. This will be found in fact to be an excellent way of inspecting the principal teacher. Whether, however, the school is large or small, the first thing for the inspector to do is to consult the time-table, so as to understand what is and ought to be going forward, and to know how best to allot his time. In the case of a big school, he will also, if possible, consult the log-book. The log-book of a large school, kept by an intelligent and efficient teacher, will throw a flood of light on the organization and character of the school ; the methods taken for instructing and training the pupil-teachers ; the share of the work in the school which has during the past year been committed to assistant-teachers and pupil-teachers ; the course of instruction which has been given in the higher subjects to the upper classes ; the difficulties which the principal teacher has met with in his year's work, and the means taken to encounter them. These, and many similar particulars, may be gathered from a well-kept log-book; and, after studying it, an inspector will go to his task prepared in a great measure with a notion of what he should look at or look for. It is not a bad plan to make teachers bring their log-books to the collective examinations of the pupil-teachers, so that the inspector may have time to study them carefully. The inspector may with great advantage keep a private rota for this purpose of all the teachers in his district, so as to secure that every teacher should bring his log-book to the collective examination every two or three years. The inspector, in watching the routine of the school, will consider also such important questions of method as the means taken to promote emulation, and to encourage effort in the scholars; whether, for example, they are marked, either

by valuation or place-taking, for any of their lessons as well as for attendance. It is singular that this is so much neglected in elementary schools. They might take example in this respect from the secondary schools.

17. *Importance of Last Year's Notes.*—In the boys' school, as in the infant school, the inspector will endeavour to see a change take place. The remarks made on this matter in reference to infant schools apply here also (see § 7); and the bigger the school, the more important is this part of the inspector's duty. Having witnessed a change, or otherwise satisfied himself that the school is well in hand, conducted methodically so as to economize time, to avoid disorder, noise, and confusion, and to produce habits of obedience and self-restraint in the scholars, the inspector will proceed to look to the teaching of the various members and proposed members of the staff. If he has seen the school before, he will, of course, be careful to have with him his note-book of the last year, so as to be able to refer to it and see what improvement (if any) or the reverse has taken place. Nothing can be more discouraging to a young teacher, who has had fault found with him last year, and who has taken some pains to improve, and has looked forward with anxiety to the inspector's visit, than to find that the inspector takes no notice of the fault. And, on the other hand, it is surprising what an effect it has in a school, when the teachers find that the inspector remembers them, and all about them. A word from the inspector at the end of the lesson—"I see you have remembered what I said to you last year about so and so"—will work marvels.

18. —*Inspection of the Teaching. How to Inspect the Candidates for Pupil - Teacherships.*— Unless there is some special reason for departing from that course, the inspector will begin

his inspection of the teaching, by looking to the teaching of the candidates. There is no more difficult task that an inspector can have to perform, than that of judging the merits of candidates for pupil-teacherships. The pupil-teachers have definite work to do by which the inspector can test them. But it is often not till a day or two before the inspection, that managers are in a position to present a boy as a candidate. And then of course the inspector is in face of the usual difficulty of judging of raw material. To take a boy out of a class and judge whether he will make a good teacher is no easy task; and the responsibility and difficulty are increased when the managers present four or five candidates for one vacant place, and ask the inspector to select the best. In practice I have found the following simple tests valuable :—

Select a class to which the candidate may give a lesson; which should not be one of the youngest in the school, but a fairly steady one, somewhere about the middle of the school. It is a great mistake in testing or training candidates and young pupil-teachers, to put them to take very young classes. If the candidate has ever taken a class before, observe how he holds himself before the class; whether he adopts a free and erect carriage, or is slovenly and listless in his postures. Even if he has only taken the class once or twice, he ought to have received some drill from the principal teacher in these matters, to say nothing of his having, while a scholar, observed how his teachers conducted themselves in these respects. Observe whether he shows any power of using the eye in controlling his class. One of the first things that a teacher has to learn is to make his class feel that every member of it is continually in his eye. If the candidate is shortsighted, he should not be passed for apprenticeship unless he has become familiar with the use of

spectacles. Put the candidate to take a reading lesson. Use the lesson as a means of seeing whether he has been trained at all in the ordinary elementary rules of teaching that subject (see § 21); and after hearing this for a sufficient time, require him to question his class, as a means of testing his general intelligence and capacity, and his readiness.

19. *Inspection of the Pupil-Teachers.*—Having finished with the candidates, the inspector will proceed to take the pupil teachers. He has already, when he came into the school, by examination of the time-table and by a conversation there-upon with the principal teacher, if the school is a large one, settled in what order he means to review the teaching of the pupil-teachers; which of them he means to see taking the ordinary instruction in reading, writing, or arithmetic; and from which of them and at what o'clock, he will expect a collective lesson. In arranging his programme for this part of the inspection (which it is most essential should be carefully thought out, so as not to waste his own time, or that of the school, and so as to get the greatest possible knowledge of the school, in the shortest possible time) he will take into consideration the pupil-teacher papers, which have been worked for him at the collective examination, and which he should make a point of having looked over before he comes to the school. If, for example, a pupil-teacher has done badly, he will give particular attention to his teaching, in order to see if his bad work in examination is due to idleness or to devotion to teaching.

20. *Programme of the Day's Work.*—I have already supposed that the school, if a large one, consists of an experienced principal teacher, one certificated assistant-teacher, five pupil-teachers, and three candidates (see § 16). In order fully to illustrate how the inspection of such a school should be conducted, I

will further suppose that the assistant-teacher is a probationer, whose teaching power must be specially tested, but that, as regards the principal, being a well-known and experienced man, it will not be necessary to require him to give lessons, but will be sufficient to ask him to take part in the examination of one or more of the higher classes, in the higher subjects (see Appendix II.) ; and that of the five pupil-teachers, one is at the end of the fifth year, one of the fourth, one of the third, one of the second, and one of the first year of apprenticeship. The inspector, having examined the time-table, and conferred with the principal teacher, will make a sort of programme for himself thus.

I will test the three candidates from 10 to 10.30 : at 10.30. I will begin my inspection of the teaching of the staff. I see by the time-table, that the following teachers will be doing the following work with their respective classes at the following hours : I shall therefore take the following course in my inspection<sup>1</sup> —First year pupil-teacher—reading lesson at 10.30 ; fifteen minutes, 10.30—10.45. Second year pupil-teacher—writing lesson at 10.30 ; fifteen minutes, 10.45—11. Change, and ten minutes' recreation, at 11. Watch this ; speak to the senior pupil-teachers as to the lessons they are going to give. Fifth year pupil-teacher—collective lesson in English grammar at 11.10 ; thirty minutes, 11.10—11.40. Fourth year pupil-teacher — arithmetic lesson at 11.40 ; twenty minutes, 11.40—12. Third year pupil-teacher—collective lesson in geography at 12 ; twenty minutes, 12—12.20. Singing heard, and dismissal watched ; 12.20— 12.40 ; and, if the time is

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<sup>1</sup> N.B. The secular hours of the school are supposed to be from 9.30 to 12.30; and from 2 to 4 for the lower classes, and to 4.30 for the senior classes. The inspector is supposed to have arrived at 9.50.

likely to be short at the end of the day, and an opportunity will not occur next day, pupil-teachers and candidates spoken to respecting their papers and teaching. Assistant master's collective lesson in English history at 2 ; thirty minutes, 2 to 2.30. Examination in grammar, geography, history, and the specific subjects of higher instruction, throughout the school, the principal, assistant, and senior pupil-teachers taking a part ; 2.30 to 4 30. Consideration with the principal teacher of the condition of the school as regards the results of inspection, and, if not done before, review of their examination papers with the pupil-teachers ; 4.30 to 5.

Such a programme as this will give a complete view of the whole organization of the school, its staff, their capacities and duties, its system, &c. ; and, when combined with the individual examination in the elements, which is to follow, or has already been effected, forms as complete and searching a test as any institution has to go through. No other class of schools, it may safely be asserted, could stand such a trial. And now for the details of it.

21. *Inspection of a Reading Lesson.*—The inspector, accompanied by the principal teacher, goes to the class-room, where the first year pupil-teacher is to take his reading lesson. They place themselves where, with least intrusion, they can best observe and hear all that passes between the young teacher and his scholars. The principal teacher does not of course interfere at all: the inspector only so far as the shortness of the time at his disposal renders it necessary for him, when satisfied on one part of the process, to ask the pupil-teacher to pass to a latter part. For example, in the above supposed programme (see § 20), the reading lesson of the first year pupil-teacher will really last half-an-hour ; but the inspector can only afford

fifteen minutes for it. He must, therefore, if he wants to see the pupil-teacher's teaching in all the different parts of a reading lesson, stop him, when he is satisfied with one part of the process, and request him to go to another. It is, of course, desirable to do this as little as possible ; as it discourages. If a young teacher has prepared his lesson properly, all the parts of it will hang together ; and he will be sorely put out, if told to alter his course. In the above supposed case, where, simultaneously with the first year pupil-teacher's reading lesson, a second year pupil-teacher's writing lesson is going on, a better plan will be for the inspector to hear the reading lesson, say, for eight minutes, then to go for twelve minutes or so to the writing lesson, and to return for the remaining ten minutes to the reading lesson. And this kind of thing should be done as much as possible ; *the great object in inspection, as distinguished from examination, being to disturb the order of the school as little as possible.*

On reaching the class-room, or part of the school-room, where the reading lesson is beginning, the inspector, having regard both to the pains which have been taken by the principal teacher in training his pupil-teacher, and to the diligence and aptness of the lad himself, will observe such things as these, in addition to those already noted for a candidate (see § 18):—

*First—Does he place himself where he can duly see, hear, and be heard ?—*The class should be so arranged and he should be so far off from it that he can see every child in it with a movement of the eye only, by just raising the eye from the book. No child should be so placed, nor should he so stand or sit, that he is obliged even to turn his head to look at any one child, still less to turn his body. He should have a little desk in front of him, on which he may place his book and any preparatory notes he may have made, so as to have his hands free. On the

other hand, he must not be so far off as to be obliged unduly to raise his voice to make himself heard, or as that he cannot easily hear the furthest child in the class reading in his natural voice. Under no circumstances must he move to his scholars, or touch them, but must control them with the eye ; and the inspector, if he has with him his notes of what he was as a candidate, will look to see what progress he has made in the use of the eye.

*Secondly—What are the relations between him and his class?—* Has a year's apprenticeship produced a reserve on his part towards his former fellow-pupils, and a respect on theirs towards him ? Do they watch his eye ? When he speaks is he attended to ? The inspector will, of course, inquire carefully how long he has been in charge of this particular class. Is he ready and full of resource when a hitch or difficulty occurs in the lesson ? For example, when a child is unable to master a word or phrase, does he understand how to get forward without telling or helping him too much ? Does he keep all the class at work ? For example, by questioning, and by requiring the better readers to help the worse ; and by not putting the children on to read in regular order.

*Thirdly—Does he understand the proper use of simultaneous teaching ?—* Nothing will show better than this whether the principal teacher has taken any pains to train him during the year, and nothing in teaching reading is more important.

A reading lesson, which is designed to last half-an-hour, should be conducted somewhat in the following order :—

(1). *Fifteen minutes.* (a) The teacher reads a passage aloud, the class listening. (b) He then reads it aloud by a few words at a time, the children reading after him simultaneously, and imitating his voice, inflexions, and pauses as exactly as pos-

sible, (c) The children then read it aloud simultaneously. He stops them, and corrects them, if any portion of the class are working badly ; and sometimes makes one portion of the class, sometimes another, go on alone without the rest. (d) This process is repeated until time expires.

(2.) *Ten minutes.* He puts on the children individually in the passage which they have been reading simultaneously, and in other passages, taking care to make the worst readers go on oftenest, and calling attention to the merits of the best readers.

(3.) *Five minutes.* He questions rapidly on the matter and text of the lesson, making the children answer by hands, or by some other sign, and not allowing them to answer simultaneously.

Suppose then that, as suggested, the inspector listens for eight minutes to the first of the abovedescribed processes, then goes to see for twelve minutes the writing lesson of the second year pupil- teacher, and then returns for ten minutes to hear part of the second and the whole of the third processes of the reading lesson, it is clear he will have been able to form a good notion of the sufficiency of the pupil-teacher in all parts of the work of giving his lesson.

*Fourthly—Does he use provincialisms, or avoid them, and check the use of them in his Scholars ?*

*Fifthly—Does the lesson show any signs of having been prepared beforehand ?—*Many teachers will not think it worth while to prepare a reading lesson beforehand. They will take the trouble to prepare a geography or grammar lesson, but not a reading lesson. This is a mistake. *Lessons in the elements, as well as lessons in the higher subjects, should be carefully prepared beforehand.* For example, the teacher should not only have settled beforehand what lesson in the reading-book he will take with his class

at the time appointed for the reading lesson, but should have selected the passage or passages in that lesson most adapted for simultaneous teaching, should have noted difficult words (that is, words liable to be mispronounced or misunderstood), and thought of the general nature of the remarks he will make on those words; and should have settled in his mind a line of questioning with which to conclude the lesson. Preparation of such an elementary lesson as a reading lesson is, of course, more necessary in the case of a young pupil-teacher than of an experienced teacher, because he will probably himself be liable to commit many of the faults and fall into many of the mistakes which his class will make. Indeed it is difficult to see how an ordinary first year pupil-teacher can usefully give a reading lesson without such preparation.

22. *Inspection of a Writing Lesson : Individual Instruction in Writing.*—To the writing lesson as given by the second year pupil-teacher, the supposition is that twelve minutes or so are allowed by the inspector. Of course, an inspector might well enough occupy a longer time ; but, well employed, this will be found sufficient. How, then, does he employ it ? To what does he principally look ?

First he looks to see whether the teacher has had his mind impressed with *the difference between examining and teaching*. The confusion is a very common one in teachers' minds on all subjects of instruction, but there is no subject in respect of which it is more common than writing. I have seen writing lessons given by certificated teachers (who certainly ought to have learnt better at their training colleges) in which the teachers did nothing more than go round the class behind the backs of the scholars and find fault with each individual boy's work in turn, never showing them how to do better, still

less making the errors, and the mode of correcting them, a matter of class instruction. The inspector will discover in two or three minutes whether the pupil-teacher has been so badly trained during his two years of apprenticeship that he does not know that he ought *to teach every boy to write as well as to examine how he does write*. He can in a very few minutes discover whether he knows what posture a scholar should adopt for writing, how he should sit to the desk, how he should hold the pen or pencil, and how place his book or slate. If he sees that the teacher is allowing a boy to work with a tiny piece of pencil as long as a thumb nail, or to sprawl over the desk with his left elbow across it, and his left ear resting on his arm, or to hold pen or pencil with the handle pointing away from him, or to raise his slate from the desk and hold it in his arm, he can very speedily put him down as either idle or untrained, and need not go further with the lesson. But if his first observation shows him that at least these grosser faults in the mechanical part of the lesson are avoided, he will then direct his attention to matters which require more thought and mental power.

One of the earliest questions, in regard to instruction in writing, in which the judgment and discretion of a teacher are brought into play, is the question *whether a child has progressed far enough in the use of the pencil to be fit to handle the pen*. This is a question which, in a thoroughly well-educated country, would be settled in the infant school. If all children went to school regularly, and if all schools were good, every child would have begun the use of the pen, and would have got over the first difficulties which accompany the manipulation of ink before leaving the infant school. But as this cannot be the case, the inspector will, in a boys' school, have to look and

see whether any boy is writing with a pen who has not been first well drilled in the use of the pencil. And in taking his notes on this point, he will be judging the principal teacher quite as much as the pupil-teacher.

One of the next questions on which the teacher's judgment is exercised in teaching writing is *whether the scholar has advanced far enough in writing text-hand to be fit to be instructed in small-hand*. And another and most important matter for the inspector to note is *whether all the copybooks in the school contain copies in large as well as in smallhand*. There are some schools in which the older boys write nothing in their copybooks but smallhand. This is a great mistake. So long as it is useful for a boy to write in a copybook at all, it is important that he should write large as well as small hand. It is the large hand that gives the real grasp of the pen, makes the wrist and fingers supple, and enables the hand to follow with power and freedom the dictates of the brain and eye. If a boy's hand is formed, it is a waste of time to make him go on with a mere copybook: he should, for his writing lesson, be provided with a transcription-book, and be set to write out extracts from standard authors, and other things that will be useful for him to refer to in after-life, when his school-days are over, and he has not the time or opportunity for going to a library. Or he should be set to compose letters and practise correspondence, to make *précis* and abstracts, and to practise other clerkly work which will connect his school training with the actual business of life, and increase his capacity as a wage-getter. But if his hand is not formed (and very few, in country schools, at any rate, are formed), he should have a copybook with three sizes of hands in it, and in which at least every third copy should be in large text-hand.

If the class which the pupil-teacher is taking is one which is to be presented in Standard I. or II. (New Code, 1876, see Appendix I.), the inspector will note carefully whether the instruction is directed to enabling the scholars *to pass from copying and transcription into dictation*. The proper way to instruct such a class is to go carefully through the alphabet ; at each lesson forming a certain number of letters on the black board, and at the same time making the children note carefully how they are formed, shaped, or connected ; then rubbing the copy out, and making them reproduce the letters, with the closest possible imitation of the style of their teacher, on their slates or copybooks, from dictation ; then choosing a passage for transcription, which shall as much as possible reproduce the letters which have been the study of this and the preceding lesson ; and, lastly, giving from dictation common words which illustrate the same or similar and analogous forms and combinations.

All this, of course, requires thought, judgment, care, and, above all, previous preparation; and a pupil- teacher who has not prepared his writing lesson will break down before an inspector who knows his duty, and does it, just as much as in his reading lesson.

Another important matter which the inspector will note is *whether the teacher has any regular and systematic method of correcting the writing which is being done by his class*. Some teachers think that it is sufficient for this purpose if they go about through the class the whole time of the writing lesson and correct each child's mistakes in turn. But this is a most inadequate way of effecting the desired purpose. It is insufficient for the bad writers, and wasteful of time and power for the good. Some children's books require to be looked at much oftener

than those of others. Some may safely be allowed to write from four to six lines without correction ; others cannot be trusted to write one line. Some are hasty, and require checking ; others require hastening. It is, of course, well that a teacher should sometimes go round his class during a writing lesson, in order to enforce the proper holding of the pen, and to see from the best point of view how each boy is doing the mechanical part of his work. But this should not be done too much. The golden rule that a teacher should be before, and not among, his class, should always be violated as little as possible. And a far better and more systematic way of correcting the books of a class, is to have a rule that *no boy may write more than a certain number of lines without standing up and turning round his copybook*, so as to show it, for correction. By this means, regular and systematic correction of the writing is secured, hasty writing is discouraged, merit is brought to the front, the teacher is forced to keep his attention fixed on his work, and matter for collective instruction is more prominently suggested. The number of lines which may be written without being offered for correction may be increased to good and careful writers, and diminished to the careless or nervous. And thus the pupil-teacher will have his whole class well in hand ; and, what is most important, the principal teacher, as he goes his ordinary rounds, will be able easily to see whether he is doing good work.

To these points I may add that, in girls' schools, the inspector will, of course, look to see that no scholar is, under any pretence, ever permitted to write in that vulgar and slovenly form called "ladies' angular hand."

23. *Class Instruction in Writing*.—If satisfied on these, or some of these, points, the inspector will then look to see *how far the pupil-teacher is capable of giving class instruction* (as opposed

to individual instruction) in writing ; that is to say, whether he knows how to draw from the work of each boy, as he sees it in turn, general lessons of warning and illustration for the collective benefit of the whole class ; or is merely capable of the far inferior art of correcting each individual boy separately.

Every teacher in giving a writing lesson, whether on slates or in copy-books, ought to have in front of his class, and in such a position that it can be seen by all, a black-board for the purpose of this class instruction. If the lesson is one on slates, from a copy set on a black-board, the teacher should have before the class a second blackboard for that purpose. When he observes that any boy sits at the desk in an improper attitude, or is faulty in his mode of handling his pen or pencil, or of forming or shaping any given letter, or of connecting any letters together, or is too slow or too quick in writing, or has any tricks or undesirable habits, he should (of course without acrimony) call the attention of the whole class to such faults, and show them how they are to be avoided. Illustrating with his chalk on the black-board, he should show how each faulty letter is best formed, and how letters should be joined, and should make the class see, by actual comparison of examples of good and bad work on the board, what is the standard at which they should aim. If the inspector, standing by a writing lesson for five or six minutes during its course, hears no word of collective teaching addressed to the class, and sees no use made of the black-board, he will of course suspect something defective in the pupil-teacher's training ; and will either ask him whether he has prepared any collective instruction to be given on the copy-head which is being done by the class, or (at any rate, in the case of a third or fourth year pupil-teacher) will call upon him to comment orally, and with black-board

illustrations, upon any defects which he has observed in the work of the class, or of any members of it. If no such collective instruction has been prepared, or the pupil-teacher, on being so called upon, breaks down and shows want of training, the inspector will, of course, make this a matter of remark to the principal teacher, at the close of his inspection (see § 62). As one important part of this question, of the pupil-teacher's power to instruct his class as a whole, the

inspector will look to see how far he has advanced in ability to write well on the black-board. This writing on the black-board is a distinct art from writing on paper at a desk, and pupil-teachers require special and careful training for it.

24. *Summary of Points in a Writing Lesson.* —To sum up, the following are briefly such points as an inspector will bear in mind, when inspecting the instruction in writing :—

- (1.) Does the pupil-teacher *teach*, or does he *examine* only ?
- (2.) Does he correct mechanical faults in the scholars ?
- (3.) Is any scholar working with a pen before he is fit to do so, or writing small hand before he is qualified to do so, or using a copy-book which has no large hand in it ?
- (4.) Is the work of the class *systematically* corrected, so as to regulate *pace*, as well as to test by results ?
- (5.) In a girls' school, does any scholar write "ladies' angular hand ?"
- (6.) Can the teacher write well with chalk on the black-board ?
- (7.) Does he know how to give to a class *collective instruction in writing* ?
- (8.) *Has he prepared his lesson ?*

25. *Preparation for Inspection of Senior Pupil-Teachers.*—Having thus inspected the teaching of the two junior pupil-teach-

ers, and seen the school dismissed for recreation, the inspector will turn to the two senior pupil-teachers, and inquire as to the lessons which they have prepared to give before him. He will not only call upon the fifth year pupil-teacher to produce the notes which he has made in preparation for the lesson on English grammar, which he is going to give before him (see § 20) ; but will also request him, and the third and fourth year pupil- teachers as well, to produce their note-books of the past year, in order that he may see what sort of work they have been doing in the way of preparing for collective lessons. In regard to these note-books, and to the notes of lessons written by the pupil- teachers at the collective examination, and to those obvious faults in manner and matter, which are the first things to be noticed and corrected by the inspector when he inspects any collective lesson, the remarks which I have already made respecting the collective teaching of infants by the principal teacher and pupil-teacher apply here also (see §§ 11, 20).

26. *Teaching of Grammar, Geography, and History:—Effect of the Revised Code.*—But there are some remarks which I wish to make in this place, on the teaching of those three subjects, English grammar, geography, and history, which, by the Code of 1875, were again authoritatively declared part of the ordinary subjects of instruction in a school (see Appendix I.) ; and particularly on the teaching of grammar. I say, again declared to be part of such ordinary instruction, because the minutes issued to the inspectors in September, 1862, after the introduction of the Revised Code, show that such instruction was always intended to be kept up in elementary schools, and to be tested and reported upon by the inspectors. It is no doubt the fact, that such instruction was largely dropped in the schools, on the introduction of the Revised Code, as is admitted in

the Report to Her Majesty of the Committee of Council for Education, for the year 1874 (Blue-Book of the Education Department for 1874-5, page xiii). And it is also no doubt true that in many schools in which these subjects were more or less efficiently kept up, they were not much noticed by the inspectors, after the introduction of the Revised Code. A good deal of unfair blame has been bestowed on the authors of the Code, on the schools, and on the inspectors, for this. We must bear in mind, as regards the blame which is sometimes given to the Education Department,—

(*a*). That it was an essential thing to be assured that the elements were thoroughly done ; and that if the effort of the Education Department was a little overstrained in this direction, to the damage of other subjects, it was a fault in the right direction. No great change, or reform, is likely to be perfect at first; and possibly it would have been better if from the very first grants had been given, and payments by results had been made, for these subjects, as well as for reading, writing, and arithmetic, as is now done. But at any rate it is better that we should have first made sure of the elements, and be now gradually creeping up to other subjects, than that, by aiming at too much, we should have run the least risk of making the elements imperfect. Even now, it is a question whether some of the time likely to be given, under the Code of 1875, to geography and English grammar, might not be better employed in English composition, and improved, or extended, arithmetic.

(*b*). As regards the blame which is sometimes given to the schools, it must not be forgotten that the wishes and aspirations of Parliament, as to the results to be obtained from our elementary schools, have always been ahead of the means

which Parliament has been willing to put at the disposal of schools for the purpose of securing such results. The schools—all at any rate, except those in the biggest towns—might fairly say to Parliament, “ You call upon us not only to secure to each child the possession of the elements, but also to give him some culture. Yet you decline, on the grounds of expense, and of social and religious differences, to organize us so thoroughly that our time may not be wasted, to supply us with a really competent staff of teachers, or to secure the universally regular attendance of our scholars.” Many of these schools—those for example in rural districts, or those amid a very poor and fluctuating population—could not really do justice to the elementary subjects, and at the same time teach such subjects as geography, grammar, and history. And in so far as the Revised Code forced such schools to give up their more tempting and showy work, and to apply themselves to the drudgery of the essentials, it did good service.

(c). As regards the blame which has been sometimes given to the inspectors for their having dropped these subjects in their examinations, it must be remembered, that the Revised Code, whilst it doubled or trebled the inspectors’ mechanical and mental labour in the inspection of the schools, and really, by the great changes it introduced, may almost be said to have forced them into a new *modus vivendi*, gave them at first no additional assistance in their work. They were expected to inspect as many schools in the week, under the Revised Code, as they had inspected under the Old Code, and yet were told to do it in a way which took them three times as long, and tired them incalculably more. If all the inspectors had been from the first supplied, as they are now, with certificated teachers, as assistant-inspectors, to help them in conducting the indi-

vidual examination in the elements which was required by the Revised Code, and thus to relieve them from some of the mechanical drudgery of their work, they would have gladly applied themselves to the more congenial task of keeping up the instruction in higher subjects.

27. *Difficulty of Teaching English Grammar: Knowledge of Old English Required.*—But to return to the fifth year pupil-teacher's grammar lesson (see § 25). There is no more difficult subject with which an inspector has to deal, whether in the elementary schools or in the training colleges, than the question of teaching English grammar. The difficulty has two parts—the incurable and the curable. The incurable part may be dismissed in a few words. It lies in the fact that English is a modem and colloquial as well as a literary language, very much altered in the course of centuries, by loss of inflexions and by the general processes of phonetic corruption, from its ancient and much more highly inflected form, or forms ; and that, consequently, no person who has not studied Old English, to say nothing of any other cognate German dialects, can treat English grammar with any safety. This is why so many of those persons, who teach English grammar, or examine in it, or write books about it, however versatile and wary they may be, are liable to blunder, to find themselves making mistakes which are ludicrous to the student of Old English, and which make all those who have to deal with the subject feel how unsatisfactory it is, in comparison with arithmetic or composition, for purposes of instruction in elementary schools. To ask a boy to parse "Woe worth the chase " or "methinks," is to demand from him a good deal more than a knowledge of modem English. And, as I say, this evil is, for the purposes of elementary schools, incurable.

28. *Knowledge of another Language, such as Latin, Desirable.*—The curable part of the difficulty of dealing with instruction in English grammar in schools requires more consideration. English grammar is unfortunately taught in our elementary schools by teachers who for the most part are unacquainted with the grammar of any other language. The consequence of this is that they have no power of steadying their thoughts and testing their conclusions in English grammar, by comparison of them with their thoughts and conclusions in the grammar of any other language living or dead. The inspector, even if he does not know anything of Old English or German, is saved from many a mistake into which the teacher falls by his knowledge of Latin ; and *it is impossible to overrate the importance of even a little knowledge of Latin for the purposes of an elementary school teacher.* The study of grammar is not of much value, until it can be treated comparatively. It would not be worth while, probably, to require our elementary school teachers to learn Old English or German, for the sake of teaching English grammar. But it is well worth while to make them learn something of Latin ; because some knowledge of that language will not only help them in giving grammar lessons, but will enlarge and enlighten their understanding upon the whole range of subjects, from spelling up to history, with which as learners or teachers they have to deal. It is to be hoped that the recent insertion, in the schedule of qualifications required of pupil-teachers, of the column headed “ additional subjects ” will do something towards remedying this defect in the teachers of our elementary schools (see Appendix III.). But the degree of effect to be produced by this regulation will be found to depend very much on the inspector. If, when he inspects a school and hears a pupil-teacher giving a grammar lesson, he

takes the opportunity to inquire whether he is studying Latin, German, or any other language than English, and expresses his disapproval, if he finds that that is not the case, both to the pupil-teacher and the principal teacher, it will soon become common for our teachers to have some knowledge of another language besides their own. I look, therefore, upon this great defect in the present teaching of English grammar in our elementary schools, viz., that teachers do not know anything of the grammar of any other language, as a curable defect. I observe that the Education Department is making an effort to amend the defect ; and I think that it now rests with the inspectors to push that effort home.

29. *How to Teach English Grammar.*—Another curable defect in the teaching of English grammar as commonly practised in our elementary schools, is that it is taught as if it were a highly-inflected language, instead of being taught as a language which depends for its construction more upon the position and logical relation of its words than upon their inflexions. (The proper way to teach English grammar is not to begin, as in the case of Latin, or of any other highly-inflected language, with the study of the noun, adjective, and verb, and their inflexions, but to begin with the study of their logical relations ; or, in other words, *to begin with the analysis of sentences.*) In studying Latin or Greek, it is absolutely necessary to acquire a knowledge of the ordinary inflexions of the noun, verb, and adjective, before any progress can be made with the sentence ; and this is also the case to a certain, though a less degree in German, and perhaps also, though to a still less degree, in the case of French. But in the case of English it is absurd to waste time over learning the cases of nouns which have lost all their case endings, and have substituted for those case endings

structural position or logical relation in the sentence. *What is wanted is to get as quickly as possible a notion of the structure of the sentence and of the logical relation of its parts.* And for this purpose the teaching of English grammar should be begun, and based throughout its course, on the analysis of sentences. The teacher should, immediately after imparting the first elementary notions and general definitions, proceed to the subject and predicate, beginning with the noun and pronoun as the subject, and with intransitive verbs, as verbs of complete predication. He should then pass on to the direct objective relations of nouns and pronouns with verbs of incomplete predication, introducing no more study of case-endings than is absolutely necessary for the purposes of the pronouns. Number, gender, person, tense, mood, and voice, should be taught as modifications of these relations. Having thoroughly worked these forms and relations of the noun, pronoun and verb, always by means of the structure of a simple sentence, the teacher should proceed to the enlargement of the subject, and thereby introduce for the first time the so-called possessive case-ending of nouns and personal pronouns, the adjective, the

noun in apposition, the possessive pronoun, and the participle. Having treated of the simplest forms of enlargement of the subject, he should proceed to the simplest forms of extension of the predicate. In this relation he should first introduce the adverb, showing its use both for extending the predicate, and, by means of the adjective, for further enlarging the subject. He should then introduce the indirect objective relation of nouns and pronouns (such as that which is called, by analogy with Latin, the dative case), always as a means of extending the predicate. All through this course of teaching, it is an essential thing that the children should be required to make

and form simple sentences in various ways, so as thoroughly to understand the practical application of what they are learning to the art of speaking and writing correctly. The teacher should then go on, by way of further extension of the predicate, and of further enlargement of the subject, to the use of the preposition with nouns and pronouns. After this he should proceed to easy types of complex sentences ; teaching the children the use of the subordinate sentence, and therewith introducing to them for the first time the conjunction, the relative pronoun, and those words such as “ why,” which answer the purpose of a relative pronoun and preposition combined. By this means, he will be able to teach them to distinguish with confidence between the several uses of words—such as those words which are sometimes used as prepositions and sometimes as conjunctions ; those which are sometimes used as conjunctions, and sometimes as relative pronouns, and the like. Having thus given the children their first notions of the relations of a subordinate to a principal sentence, he should then return to the simple sentence, and should instruct the children in the various kinds of phrases, in the more difficult uses of the participle, and in the nature and functions of interjections ; and after this should go back once more to the complex sentence, and carry on his teaching into the different kinds of subordinate sentences ; being extremely careful at this point of his teaching to ascertain that the children see clearly the reason why any given subordinate sentence is substantival, adjectival, or adverbial, by making them always point out the word in the principal sentence upon which the subordinate sentence depends.

30. *Advantage of this Method.*—Some persons may think that this way of teaching English grammar, by means, that is to say, of logical analysis, is more difficult for children than

the old method of teaching it by a system of supposed inflexions, and of parsing those inflexions, based on the analogy of Latin ; and may imagine that it will be found too difficult for children in our elementary schools. I am perfectly convinced from observation and experience, both as an inspector and as a teacher, that this is not the case. The technical terms which it is necessary to use in teaching grammatical analysis are neither more nor less difficult in themselves than those which it is necessary to employ in teaching arithmetic, geography, or book-keeping ; and they are not more difficult than the terms which it is necessary to use in teaching grammar on the old system. As regards all such terms, whether employed in the teaching of book-keeping, or of analysis of sentences, the great point is to make the children have an intelligent understanding of the real things which underlie them, and which they represent, and this can be satisfactorily done in the case of English grammar only by means of analysis. Moreover, teachers who adopt this mode of teaching English grammar, will find that the power of getting quickly at the *sentence* is of immense advantage as a means of interesting the children, and engaging their attention, in what must otherwise appear to them a most dry and unprofitable study. As soon as a child can begin to construct sentences, he feels, as a learner in algebra feels when he is able to solve an easy problem by means of an equation, that he is really doing something ; and that he has got the best of answers to that question which children are always asking secretly of themselves, if not openly of their teachers, in their studies, viz. :—“ What is the use of all this ? ” I succeeded, when I was acting as an inspector in Liverpool and Cheshire, in spite of the disturbance of things caused by the recent introduction at that time of the Revised Code, in persuading two or

three of the principal teachers in some of the best elementary town schools in my district, to try the effect of teaching grammar in this way to their upper classes ; and all those who made the attempt told me afterwards that they were satisfied it was a great improvement on the former method. And I have since that time myself taught English grammar to a little girl of nine years old on the same system, and have been more than ever convinced of its utility.

31. *Importance of Inspection of Fifth-Year Pupil-Teachers.*—The probability is extreme that before the inspector has listened ten minutes to a lesson on grammar, from a fifth-year pupil-teacher, he will hear several things of very questionable authority told to the children, and one or two actual mistakes made. Unless the grammar lesson is very easy, and the pupil-teacher unusually wary, the inspector will probably soon find that he is out of his depth. He will thus have an excellent opportunity, at the close of the day and when he is speaking to the pupil-teachers about their work, of bringing home to them all the importance, for purposes of general culture, and of improvement in their profession, of learning another language besides their native tongue, and of studying and teaching English grammar all through by means of analysis of sentences. But if the lesson on English grammar is a very easy one, and does not really bring out any illustrative difficulties, or if it happens that the lesson given before him by the fifth-year pupil-teacher is not on grammar, the inspector will stop the lesson after hearing it for a certain time, say for ten minutes or a quarter of an hour, will select a simple passage from one of the prose books used in the school, and will request the pupil-teacher to question the class on that passage. This is particularly important in the case of a pupil-teacher at the

end of his fifth year; because, in inspecting his teaching, there lies upon the inspector the responsibility of reporting (under Article 60, of the new Code) whether he has completed his engagement with credit, and having satisfactorily passed his final examination can be specially recommended for immediate service with a provisional certificate. With this responsibility upon him the inspector will of course take care to pay full and careful attention to the teaching of the fifth-year pupil teacher. If this is not his first

visit to the school in question, but he has seen it before, he will not only have acquired some knowledge of the capacity and industry of this particular teacher, in a previous part of his course of apprenticeship, but will also have some notion whether the school is one in which the training of pupil-teachers is so intelligently and carefully superintended, that he may feel justified in giving such a special recommendation. But if this is his first visit to the school he will remember that there is no part of his work as an inspector which is more important than this duty of thoroughly testing the fifth-year pupil-teacher. He will grudge no sacrifice of time for the purpose of doing this properly. And whatever other part of the inspection he finds it requisite to cut short for want of time, he will not hurry over this. He may learn much of the capacity and qualifications of such a teacher, by requiring him to assist him in the examination of some of the classes in geography, grammar, and history, or in any other subjects besides the elements which are taught in the school, and by looking carefully over his note-book of the lessons which he has given in the course of the year. If the pupil-teacher has not been properly trained to give collective lessons on such subjects, carefully to prepare such lessons beforehand, and to make notes of such prepara-

tion with the help and under the superintendence of the principal teacher, or if he displays, in giving his lesson, any of those gross faults of which I have spoken, in treating of the teaching of the younger pupil-teachers, and thus shows that he has not been properly trained even in the rudiments of his profession, it is scarcely necessary to say that the inspector will absolutely refuse to give such special recommendation, and will speak very seriously to the principal teacher on the subject at the end of the day.

32. *Teaching of Arithmetic. Importance of Discipline.*—Having heard the teaching of the fifth-year pupil-teacher, and either satisfied himself as to his fitness for being recommended for a provisional certificate, or made due preparation for so satisfying himself at a later period of his inspection or examination of the school, the inspector will proceed to take the arithmetic lesson of the fourth-year pupil-teacher (see § 20). And there are a few observations and suggestions which I desire to make in this place, before proceeding to treat of the course taken by the inspector in his inspection of this lesson, upon the general question of the teaching of arithmetic in elementary schools.

The successful teaching of arithmetic in a public elementary school for boys is eminently a question of order and discipline. In girls' schools the unsatisfactory results in arithmetic are probably due as much to defects of knowledge of the subject on the part of the teacher, as to defects of order. But in boys' schools this is not the case. Our certificated masters have always been, within their range, good arithmeticians, and well qualified as a class both to teach the subject to their scholars, and to train their pupil-teachers to teach it. And if the results of their teaching have been in many schools unsatisfactory, the fault has been due as much to want of discipline as to anything

else. And the discipline, it must be remembered, which is sufficient for teaching reading or writing, or any other subject, is *not* sufficient for the teaching of arithmetic. No serious mischief is done in a writing lesson by one of the scholars overlooking the work of another. And the evil produced by undetected prompting in a reading or geography lesson, though it is, of course, real and serious, is trifling by comparison with the harm produced by undetected copying and prompting in arithmetic. It happens also unfortunately that copying and prompting are particularly easy, and therefore specially difficult to detect, in arithmetic. One glance, or one whispered word, will often do the mischief. And teachers and examiners are always apt to underrate the powers of children in carrying on these practices so as to avoid detection. In testing how far a class has mastered the instruction which it has received in a new rule of arithmetic, or in reviewing a class in back-work, or in conducting any examination in arithmetic, it is not sufficient to place the children a few yards apart from one another, or to give different sums to alternate children, or (unless there is ample space for spreading the children out so as to leave every alternate row of desks vacant) even to give different sums to every third child. Children who are lazy, and anxious to avoid the trouble of thinking, or who have been inattentive during a lesson, and are anxious to avoid being detected and blamed for such inattention, or who have been accustomed to copy, and are therefore not self-reliant, can exercise an ingenuity which is perfectly marvellous in obtaining help at such a pinch from their fellow scholars. No one who has not experience of schools would believe how far they can see, and how rapidly take in, the mode of working a sum pursued, or the result obtained, by their more clever or diligent class-fellows.

33. *Effects of Want of Discipline in Teaching Arithmetic.*—And the effects of this copying are as disastrous in arithmetic as its practice is easy. The way in which the evil works is this. A new process in arithmetic is taught to a class of children. The diligent and clever members of the class have taken it in quickly, while the slower or less attentive members have obtained a less thorough, or perhaps a very slight grasp of the subject. The teacher proceeds, by setting examples to be worked, to test how far his instruction has taken hold of the class. At once the temptation presents itself to those slower or careless members of the class to copy from their quicker class-fellows. And, unless the teacher detects the attempt, he may be so far deceived as to think that the whole, or almost all, of the class have mastered what he has been endeavouring to teach them, and may therefore conclude that it is safe for him to pass on to the next stage in his instruction. The further he proceeds in this course, the more helpless and dependent become the children who have taken to copying, and the more necessary is it for them to persevere and become adepts in that deceptive practice, until at last the school is visited by an examiner, who takes such precautions as make it impossible for the children to copy, and then there comes a break-down which astonishes the teacher as much as the examiner and the managers. The reason why, after the introduction of the Revised Code, so many boys' schools failed in arithmetic, was, mainly, that copying had been much more general than was suspected. The schools do much better in this subject now than they did on the first introduction of the Revised Code. Yet the teachers are no better trained in it, and their methods of teaching are very much the same. But the payment by results, and those results being tested by inspectors, who adopt measures which render copying impos-

sible, have forced the teachers to adopt similar measures; and the effect has been a general improvement in the arithmetical acquirements of the scholars.

34. *How to Stop Copying in Teaching Arithmetic.*—There is only one way of making sure that copying in arithmetic is not practised in a school, and that is to make it impossible. It is absurd to talk as if copying could be stopped by appeals to the children's honour, or by punishment of those who are detected in the practice. The sense of honour in children, in an elementary school, cannot be expected to be greater than that of Eton boys, or undergraduates, or candidates for the Civil and Military Services, and for Holy Orders. The code of honour of the examinee is naturally a different one from that of the examiner ; and what examinees at the public schools and universities will freely do, unless prevented, children in elementary schools will do. As for punishment, idle or slow boys will run the risk of it. Detection is not certain, but the trouble of having to apply the mind to a difficult question is most certain. So that *the only real way to stop copying in a school is to make it impossible*. Pupil-teachers who have charge of the lower classes should always be trained in simple mechanical methods of giving from three to six different examples at once, so as to make it impossible for their scholars to copy; and they should be required to use such mechanical methods with their classes whenever they are reviewing or testing progress in arithmetic. They should also be taught, when taking a new process in arithmetic with their classes, always to work through a certain number of examples, orally, with the children, on the black board, taking care to make those who are usually slow, inattentive, or inaccurate in arithmetic do the greater share of this work. It is marvellous what a reform is made in the arithmetic

of a school when once steps have been taken to render copying impossible. Boys who have been inattentive, learn to attend ; boys who have been in the habit of relying on others, get the habit of self-reliance, and find themselves so much happier and better that it becomes no very difficult matter, with a little care and judgment, to maintain that habit in them. And this change in their habits, as regards arithmetic, affects not only their progress in that subject, but improves their capacity and their work in all the subjects taught in the school. It is, therefore, as I have said, impossible to overrate the importance of preventing copying in arithmetic in a school, and the inspector will make a point of inquiring, in the course of his inspection, what methods are adopted in the school to secure this result.

35. *Pupil-Teachers to be Questioned on Method.*—He will also inquire, as part of his general inspection of the school, how far the multiplication-table is learnt; whether it is the practice of the school to teach it up to twenty times instead of stopping, as is usually thought sufficient, at twelve times; and whether the knowledge of it is secured and rendered readily available by frequent and regular repetition of it, at least throughout all but the highest classes in the school. He will

inquire what system of mental arithmetic is in use in the school; and whether the pupil-teachers, or at any rate the seniors among them, are acquainted with handy methods of working rules by shortened processes. It will be found to have a great and most wholesome effect if the inspector, when holding the collective examination of pupil-teachers, will call up the third, fourth, and fifth year pupil-teachers, or some of them, and question them orally as to the methods adopted in their schools in respect of these and similar matters. By so doing the inspector will not only get some light to guide

him in his forthcoming inspection, and will learn something of the intelligence of pupil-teachers, when taken out of the ordinary routine of their paper work; but he will also awaken in their minds a desire to study method, when they see what importance is attached by the inspector to all the processes which they pursue in the exercise of their profession. A very good opportunity may be found for doing this, at the collective examination, by the inspector, when he calls out the older pupil-teachers to work their Euclid orally on the black-board. I used, when acting as an inspector, always to give an oral examination in Euclid, as well as the written one, at my collective examinations ; of course not allowing the same letters as are employed in the text-book to be affixed to their figures by the examinees. I found that this practice had a most salutary effect on the study of Euclid among the pupil-teachers, as the principal teachers of the school were generally present (as well as many managers and others), and were ashamed that their pupil-teachers should break down in so public a manner. I also found that I was very often able to use that opportunity to put one or two unexpected questions to the senior pupil-teachers on method or other matters which I had reason to think were apt to be neglected in the schools.

36. *Fractions to be Taught next after the Simple Rules.*—The new Code does not require vulgar fractions to be taught below the sixth standard (see Appendix I.). The inspector cannot therefore, of course, insist on any instruction being given in fractions in elementary schools below that standard. But he can point out to teachers how defective and slipshod all teaching in arithmetic must be in which fractions are not introduced, and can encourage them to begin instruction in fractions as early as possible. When the Revised Code was first introduced, frac-

tions did not form part of the standard examination at all; and many schools in which that subject had been regularly taught, gave it up and confined themselves to the standard course. I was so persuaded of the evil of this, that I issued a circular to the effect that old established boys' schools would still be examined in fractions, and that those in which instruction in this subject was maintained would have a better general report. My own conviction is that teachers will find that *it answers, for the mere purposes of the Standard examination, to teach fractions to all their classes immediately after the first four simple rules* ; while I think there can be no question that the general effect of pursuing this course will be excellent. The teaching of arithmetic will thus become much more sound and intelligent, and can also be made much more interesting to the children. I do not believe that, in the long run, teachers would find they had lost any time, or any grant on arithmetic, by teaching vulgar fractions to their third and fourth standards, and decimal fractions to their fifth standards; but rather that the time was, in every sense, well bestowed in securing to the children that their arithmetical training was really sound and scientific, which it never can be until they have learnt something of fractions. The gain, too, in the popularity of the schools among the intelligent artisans and other skilled labourers would be very great, and more would be done by such a course than by any thing else to remove one of the great scandals of our elementary schools, viz., that they turn out the mass of their scholars (who never reach the sixth standard) so deficient in their knowledge of arithmetic, that it is useless to attempt to give them any technical education until they have first gone through a course of improved arithmetic. I am quite aware, however, that while the standard course of arithmetic remains as it now is, and

requires the teaching of the compound rules, of the weights and measures, and of practice and proportion, before vulgar and decimal fractions, the inspector can do nothing in this matter except exhort and encourage. Earnest exhortation and hearty encouragement will, however, do much more than people suppose.

37. *Inspection of an Arithmetic Lesson. Three Divisions of the Subject.*—With these general principles in view respecting the teaching of arithmetic, the inspector will proceed to criticize the arithmetic lesson which I have supposed is to be delivered before him by the fourth year pupil-teacher. And the first thing which he will have to consider, in directing his attention to this particular lesson is, *with what part of the art of teaching arithmetic, is this lesson concerned?* In teaching arithmetic, there are three essential parts—*new work, practice, and review.* The inspector will have inquired during the above-mentioned interval (see § 25), or he will inquire before the lesson begins, with which of these three divisions the lesson of the fourth-year pupil-teacher is to be concerned, and will look carefully to see if the pupil-teacher understands the distinction of the provinces of these divisions.

38. *First Division. A Lesson of New Work.*— If the lesson is one of *new work*, that is in which the class first breaks ground on a new rule, the great points for the inspector to look to are—

(a). Is the teacher thoroughly master of his subject? Does he treat of it mechanically, or does he seem saturated with it, so that he can put it in many various ways, and can illustrate it largely?

(b). Is he clear and logical in his treatment? Do the parts of his lesson lead up to one another, and to the conclusion, by

well-arranged, clear, definite, and yet easy steps, so that each one suggests the preceding and the following ?

(c). Does the lesson show thought and preparation ? Does he simply adopt the line of any well-known good text-book, in his arrangement of the subject, his examples, and his reasons for the different processes, or has he so far thought over the matter, as to give it a turn of his own ? *No intelligent teacher, however young, can think over his work out of school, and by himself, without giving it some originality of aspect.*

39. *Illustration of an Arithmetic Lesson of New Work.*—For example, let us suppose it is *a first lesson on multiplication of decimals*. I select this subject because it is one in which the mechanical rule is exceedingly simple and easy, but in which the reasons for the rule, though perfectly capable of being explained and understood by a class, are not so simple, and will bring out good teaching ; while at the same time, besides its importance in a mathematical aspect, it is impossible to deal satisfactorily with division of decimals, or indeed to obtain any grasp of decimal fractions, until the principles upon which the reasons for this rule depend are apprehended; whereas, when once they are grasped, division of decimals becomes as simple an affair as division of money or avoirdupois.

And let us suppose that the lesson is designed to last forty-five minutes—from 11.40 to 12.25 (see § 20). Let us further suppose that not only has the pupil-teacher *prepared his lesson carefully*, (see § 10, 21), and taken counsel from the master, if there was any point in respect of which he was not clear in his own mind, or not satisfied that he could make it clear to others, but also that he has taken the precaution to *tell his class beforehand, that they are to have a lesson next time on this subject, and has required them to avoid waste of time by learning*

*the mechanical rule in preparation.* Let us, in short, suppose that the teacher has not neglected ordinary precautions for making the most of his three-quarters of an hour's teaching. Then the scheme of the lesson will be something of this kind :—

(1.) *Five minutes.* Questions on back work. For example : On powers of numbers ; on the true meaning of multiplication ; on the true meaning of the point in decimal fractions, and its function, as the exponent of the power of ten which is implied in the unexpressed denominator ; on addition and subtraction of decimals.

(2.) *Fifteen minutes.* The mechanical rule for multiplication of decimals repeated by two or three

boys in different parts of the class, as a sample how far the class has mastered the process mechanically ; and a few short examples, such as can be done wholly, or almost wholly, in the head, worked for the same purpose.

(3.) *Twenty minutes.* The reasons for this rule developed and explained. Law, that the product of powers of a number is found by taking the sum of their exponents, stated, demonstrated, and illustrated. Easy examples given, and questions asked, on the application of the law to integral numbers. The law applied to the process of multiplication of decimals, and to the rule for that process. Rule thus shown to be a mechanical process of applying that law.

(4.) *Five minutes.* Recapitulation, with application of above theory to three or four short, easy, examples.

40. *Difference between Lesson of New Work and Lesson of Practice.*—A lesson of new work in arithmetic should, *mutatis mutandis*, be something of this kind ; and it is clear that in inspecting such a lesson the inspector will have a very different work on hand from the inspection of a lesson of practice

or of review. And it must be observed that I mean by a lesson in new work an absolutely *first* lesson in a rule or process. The inspector, when the notes of the intended lesson are put into his hand by the pupil-teacher, will be careful to ask how far the lesson is really on an absolutely new rule. All lessons, except the first, on a given rule, I call lessons of practice; and I distinguish them on the one hand from lessons of new work, and on the other from lessons of review, which deal with a wider range of recapitulation, and in a more miscellaneous manner. Not that there is not a certain amount of theory to be inculcated in lessons of practice. The reasons for every process should be constantly kept before the children's minds whenever working arithmetic. But that practice, and not explanation of theory, is the main object of these lessons of practice.

41. *Second Division: A Lesson of Practice.*— In inspecting a lesson of new work in arithmetic, the inspector will look more to the teacher (according to the hints given above, see § 38) than to the class. In inspecting *a lesson of practice*, he will almost look more to the class than to its teacher. Let us suppose that the lesson is the next lesson on the same subject after a lesson of new work. The great points now for him to regard are—

(a). Are copying and prompting absolutely unknown? And does the class work as if they were unknown? That is, is *each member of the class, to the extent of his abilities, self-reliant?*

(b). *Does the teacher sort his class?* That is to say, does he find out quickly and accurately which boys have taken a firm and clear hold of the instruction he gave them in the last lesson, which have but an infirm grasp of it, and which (if any) have failed altogether to comprehend it?

(c). Does he understand that he ought to administer a *different treatment to these different sections of his class*; to push on

the first division, and give them more and harder examples, and to select some of the best of them in turn to explain and drive home the subject to the second division, while he himself draws the third division, or worst laggards, out upon the floor, and makes another effort with them by way of recapitulation ?

(d). *Are his examples carefully prepared before-hand, and well chosen ?* Arithmetical examples should not be *always* short, otherwise scholars will fail to acquire the valuable habit of patient, and yet intelligent, labour, with the mind all the while fixed on a goal. *Long examples, as well as short, should be sometimes given ; but they should be the exception.* For everything, except a trial of endurance and accuracy, short examples are much more valuable than long. And they should be so chosen as to illustrate as many varieties of practical difficulties as possible.

(e). Does he do as much work as possible *orally*— putting on the worst scholars in the simpler parts of the processes, and making the better scholars keep watch to correct them ; encouraging the diligent and accurate by marks or placetaking, and endeavouring to make the whole lesson as lively and as interesting as possible ?

(f). Does he discourage *speed* at the expense of accuracy, and of neat figures, while encouraging it, particularly by means of abbreviated processes, in the careful ?

42. *Third Division. A Lesson of Review.*— The *lesson of review* in arithmetic combines the leading features of the other two lessons. In it the teacher has not only to pass over back-work, for the purpose of preventing its being forgotten by his scholars, but he has the equally important work to do of trying to connect the different rules together, so as to show their bearing on one another, and to give his scholars a connected view of the science. It is in this kind of lesson that the

teacher takes problems which involve the use and application of several rules, and works them through with his class. This kind of lesson is, of course, from its nature, largely catechetical, and is as good a test of the teacher's capacities as any. If the lesson which the fourth-year pupil-teacher in question is to give is a lesson of review, the inspector will look particularly to such points as the following, in addition to those which I have noted in regard to the lessons in practice and new work, so far as they are applicable (see § § 38, 41) :

(a). Are the examples which the teacher gives of such a kind as to draw out the intelligence of the children, and to make them think ; are they, not mere mechanical applications of rules, but *problems*, requiring the combined application of several rules, *such as are met with in every-day life* ?

(b). When the scholars are puzzled by an example, does he understand how to help them judiciously ? In showing them, for instance, how to attack a problem, does he endeavour to show them some general principle, wherewith all similar problems may be attacked, and whereby they may be better able to help themselves next time they meet with such a problem ; or does he only look to helping them over the present difficulty ?

(c). Does he require a fair proportion of the work in such a lesson to be done orally, and *reasons for all processes to be regularly and clearly stated* ?

43. *Time given to these Lessons by the Inspector.*—It is supposed that the arithmetic lesson is designed to last forty-five minutes; but that the inspector can only give it twenty minutes. He must, therefore, do, in the case of this arithmetic lesson and of the geography lesson which is to follow it, as it is proposed he should do in the case of the reading and writing lessons of the first and second year pupil-teachers (see § 21). He must

pass from one to the other, so as to satisfy himself as to the leading parts of each lesson. It is seldom that an inspector will have time to hear the whole of a lesson completely out. Nor is it generally necessary that he should do so. He can very soon tell, sufficiently for the purpose not only of reporting on the teachers, but also of talking over their work afterwards with them and with the principal, and of addressing to them, or him, words of warning or encouragement, where their faults or their merits lie, and what signs of ability and painstaking they show. In the supposed case of an arithmetic lesson by a fourth-year pupil-teacher, followed by a geography lesson by a third-year pupil-teacher, the former is the more important thing to hear completely, particularly if it is a lesson of new work, or of review. In the case of a lesson of *new work*, distributed in the mode in which I have suggested (see § 39), the inspector, after hearing the opening of the lesson (five minutes), and another five minutes of Part 2, will go to the geography lesson and hear that for fifteen minutes, and then will return for the last twenty minutes of the arithmetic lesson.

44. *At what stage Pupil-teachers should begin Collective Teaching.*—Having finished the arithmetic lesson of the fourth-year pupil-teacher, or so much of it as he finds it necessary or desirable to do before going to the geography lesson, the inspector, still accompanied by the principal teacher, passes on to the geography lesson of the third-year pupil-teacher (see § 20). The third year is the year in which the effects of training first begin to be seen most markedly ; in which the pupil-teacher begins really to shape ; and in which collective lessons can, generally speaking, first be given with any real effect. The schedule to the New Code (see Appendix III.), which defines the qualifications to be required of pupil-teachers during their course of

training, does not define at what stage in their apprenticeship they are to begin giving collective lessons. So far as it affords any indication at all on this point, it would seem rather to point to the pupil-teachers not giving such a lesson till their fifth year. This, however, can hardly be the intention of the schedule ; and perhaps the explanation of the matter is, that the term “ collective lesson ” is there used in the sense of “ lesson to the whole school ” or to a division of the whole school : whereas, I have used the term in the sense in which I believe it is generally used by teachers and managers of elementary schools, viz., that of a lesson in which the instruction is addressed broadly to the whole class, and is not, as in a reading or writing lesson, largely individual. My own practice, when acting as an inspector, was *to require collective lessons in such subjects as geography, grammar, and history, for the first time from pupil-teachers at the end of the third year.* I think that is a good practice, and I believe that it is not an uncommon rule with inspectors.

45. *Inspection of a Geography Lesson.*—To what, then, does the inspector particularly look when coming to hear the geography lesson of the third-year pupil-teacher ? He will of course first of all notice *his progress in respect of the elementary laws of teaching.* Having his notes of last year in hand, he will see what improvement he has made in handling a class ; how far he has corrected

the faults which were noticed last year; whether he keeps his place and controls the scholars with the eye, or moves up and down, or to them, or has any other of the gross faults which I have mentioned in speaking of candidates and pupil-teachers of the first two years (see §§ 18, 21), Next he will notice *whether the lesson has been carefully prepared ;* and whether the pupil-teacher has the power in a fair degree of attending prop-

erly to his class and keeping the scholars active, stimulating them, rousing them when weary, quieting them when boisterous and disorderly, and distributing work evenly among them ; and all this while keeping the thread of his lesson in hand, not forgetting the sequence of its parts, and not dwelling too long on the comparatively unimportant parts, or hurrying too quickly over the important parts. He will of course observe whether he has improved at all in his diction since last year, or his first year ; whether he speaks in an indistinct or hurried way, or uses any vulgarisms, or is at all undignified or trifling. When he is satisfied, which he will be in a very few minutes, on these rudimentary matters, he will pass on to consider *the special value of the lesson, as a lesson in geography*. And just as it is necessary to have some clear notions of what is grammar as taught in our elementary schools, in order to be able to judge properly a lesson in grammar, so it is necessary to have a clear notion of what is geography as taught in our elementary schools, in order to be able to form a good judgment of a geography lesson.

46. *Divisions of the Subject*.—There are two distinct subjects taught in schools under the name of geography. One is the study of those conditions of the earth which are due to nature— its shape and motions, its position in the solar system, and its relations to the sun, moon, and other members of that system; its climate, and principal atmospheric, and other superficial changes and conditions ; the phenomena of its surface, such as seas, mountains, rivers, lakes, and the other natural divisions and formations of land and water ; and the like—which is called *physical geography*. The other is the study of those conditions of the earth which are due to its inhabitant man—the division of its surface into countries, and the

subdivisions of those countries ; the commercial and political relations of those countries to one another ; the localities where men are most aggregated, and the social reasons of such aggregations ; the seats of government, industry, learning, and education ; the courses and lines of operation of commerce ; and the relative progress of the inhabitants of different parts of the world in what we call civilization—which is called *political geography*.

*Physical geography comes first of the two, as a study for children, not only because it is more adapted to youthful minds, is less statistical, cultivates thought and reflection more, opens the mind more, and (as an instrument of education) is less apt to degenerate into mere cram ; but also because it is impossible to study political geography without some knowledge of physical geography. Children ought not to be taught political geography at all, until they have at least a fair grasp of the rudiments of physical geography, nor to be taught the political geography of a country or county, until they have a good knowledge of its physical geography.*

In going, therefore, to inspect this lesson in geography, the inspector will look carefully at the notes handed to him by the pupil-teacher to see whether it would appear that the teacher has a clear appreciation of the difference between these two branches of geography, and whether the lesson deals with one or both of these branches ; if both, in what proportions or relations ; if one, whether that one is physical or political geography. If, or looking at the notes, he feels any doubt about this, he will, in the interval before mentioned (see § 25), put a question or two to the pupil-teacher, to ascertain whether he has realized how different the two branches are, how differently they require to be handled, and what a different state of preparation

they require in the scholars. If he sees that the lesson is wholly or mainly on political geography, he will inquire how far the children are fitted for such a lesson by their previous instruction in physical geography. And, if he is not satisfied on these points, he will, in a subsequent conversation with the principal teacher, point out the importance of making political geography wait upon physical, and will insist on the relative position, in a school course, of these two branches of geography being better observed.

47. *Importance of Home Preparation.*—The next question which he will consider is one of the utmost importance, not only in regard to the teaching of geography, but also to that of history, and to a certain though less degree, in the teaching also of grammar, in our elementary schools. This question is, *what preparation are the children expected to have made for this lesson by means of home work ?* All the mere dry matters of fact

which are required to be acquired by the children in a geography or history lesson, should be so acquired by them out of school, in readiness for the lesson. Except the youngest children who cannot be trusted with books out of school, or who cannot read easily enough to study such books, every child should have a little rudimentary book of geography, with coloured maps, a little rudimentary book of history with dates, and a little rudimentary book of English grammar, with analysis of sentences, from which it should be expected to prepare its home lessons ; and those very young or very neglected and ignorant children to whom it would be useless to assign home lessons should have less time allotted to them in school for direct instruction, and should be gradually trained to give such spare part of the school time to preparation. It is a deplorable waste of teaching power, and is ruinous both to teachers and

taught, to let the teacher's time and vigour be spent in telling the children mere rudimentary facts which they can gain from a penny text-book. In this important matter, as well as in that of marks and place-taking (see § 16), our elementary schools will do well to take a lesson from our secondary schools. No master at Rugby or Marlborough would think of wasting his time, degrading his teaching, and indulging his scholars in neglect and idleness, by occupying his lesson on geography or history with telling them things which they can and should learn from an ordinary and accessible text-book. There the scholars are expected to get up those mere elements out of school, or in special hours of preparation ; and the business of the master is one which pre-supposes in his scholars an acquaintance

with such rudiments ; it is to test, illustrate, amplify, and give interest to such pre-supposed rudimentary knowledge. With every allowance for the difference between a boarding-school and a day-school, and between the domestic circumstances of the rich and of the poor, this is what our elementary schools should likewise aim at. They should do so for the sake of the teacher ; because, if his powers are lowered down to the mere delivery of these dry facts, he will have no stimulus to read and improve himself for his scholars ; and no chance of throwing over their work the charm of his superior knowledge, or of his genius. They should do so for the sake of the scholars ; because, if they are never practised in learning by themselves they will never learn well at all ; and because their time is wasted and their golden opportunities are squandered, when the powers of their teachers are not fully called forth and displayed for their benefit. And they should do so for the sake of the parents ; because nothing will carry the civilizing influence of the school more universally into the houses of parents,

into our alleys and street doors, than this requirement of home lessons. Day schools, with their home preparation and their place-taking at school, have been the two key-notes of the great and ancient Scottish system of popular education ; and in the hands of able and zealous managers, and faithful and judicious teachers, these two principles might be made to play a great part in the cause of popular education in England. The importance of this home-preparation is greater in geography and history than in any other subjects ; and the inspector will, therefore, if he does not find it specified in the notes which the pupil-teacher puts into his hands, lose no time in inquiring, “ What did you require them to prepare for this lesson ? ” And if he finds that no preparation has been expected, or that the teacher is wasting his own time and that of the class in telling them things which they either have, or ought to have, prepared, he will speak seriously with the principal teacher, after the inspection, on that matter also.

48. *Use of Blank Maps.*—As a part of this question of home preparation in geography, the inspector will look carefully to see whether the school is well furnished with *blank maps*. It is impossible to overrate the importance of these appliances in an elementary school. In a school in which the geography teaching was really well done, full maps would seldom be used, except in history and reading lessons, and whenever a reference was required to be made. The children, or all those at any rate in the upper half of the school, would be expected to get up their full maps out of school, and would be tested in this knowledge by means of the blank maps in the school. It is an excuse sometimes made for want of such maps, that the teachers are expected to draw their own blank maps, for purposes of instruction, on the black board. This excuse ought not to be

accepted. It is very right and proper that pupil-teachers should be able to draw maps, or detached parts of maps, on the black board, for purposes of illustration, &c.; but it is an undue waste of the pupil-teacher's time to require him to draw on the board every map, from which he is to give a lesson in geography, with all the details which must be required for such a lesson ; and it will be found, as a matter of fact, by any active and inquisitive manager, that, where the only blank maps available are those which are drawn by the teachers, more lessons in geography are given without than with a blank map. I have seen in the course of my experience as an inspector, and of the inquiries which I conducted into secondary education for Lord Taunton's Commission, every degree of absurdity result from giving geography lessons without the use of blank maps. The worst absurdity is that which I have witnessed in some girls' schools, both secondary and elementary, where the teacher sat before the class with a large map of England, hung up on an easel, and asked the class questions to which they could see the answers in print before their eyes. The teacher herself, wholly unprepared for her lesson, and profoundly ignorant, would nervously scrutinize the map between each question, and then, after an oppressive interval, she would point to a spot on it, in the bottom left-hand corner, and ask "What is that ?" The eyes of the front row of girls following the pointer saw the word "Start" in a fine bold print, and their voices repeating it, were caught up in parrot chorus, by the whole class. And this was believed to be a "lesson in geography." A less degree of the same absurdity is still, I fear, common in many schools. A child is selected to point out a place on the map, and is called out in front to do it. With much labour it disentangles itself from the back benches, the whole class watching while

it comes round to the front. The pointer is placed in its hand, and it stands before the map searching for the required name. Perhaps it succeeds in finding it. Perhaps not. But whether it succeeds or fails, the process is equally un instructive. The use of blank maps in a school will at any rate make such mistakes as this on the part of teachers impossible. And, as I have said, no school ought to be without a good supply of them. Every school ought also to have a good terrestrial and a good celestial globe. Frequent reference to the former, and an occasional lesson to the older children on the latter, are most important as a means of making the instruction in geography really cultivating and intelligent.

49. *Geography to be taught with History.*— *Lessons in Political Geography ought to be connected with History, and illustrated as much as possible by Anecdote.* The great danger of this branch of geography is its tendency to degenerate into mere lifeless, thoughtless cram, or a mere repertory and catechism of unmeaning names. It is for example very difficult to make English children take an intelligent interest in the political geography of Ireland. But let the teacher who is to teach the geography of Ireland, read for this purpose such works as the account of the Irish campaign in the second volume of *Oliver Cromwell's Letters and Speeches*, by Mr. Carlyle. Let him master the spirit and main outlines of the story, and then let him teach the political geography of Ireland by way of illustration of the story which he tells the children. So with the geography of any other country. The teacher should endeavour to connect his teaching of it with matters of human and patriotic interest. India should be taught by reference to such stirring events as the life of Lord Clive and the Sepoy Mutiny ; Spain by reference to the Peninsular War; Australia by unfolding the story

of its gradual settlement and colonization ; and all parts of England by reference to English history. In teaching the children the geography of the county in which they live, and of the neighbouring counties, the teacher should try to have access to a county history. Even if he cannot procure a good county history, he can probably extort from his managing committee the purchase of a Murray's guide-book to the county, or, at the worst, get the gift of a cast-off Post Office Directory. Anything that will help him and his staff to avoid mere statistics in their geography lessons, to disentangle the important from the unimportant details, and to throw a colour of human interest over the whole work, should be caught at and utilized. Some day, perhaps, we may have a good series of school books of reference, and every school will have its teachers' library of such books. Meantime it is the teacher's duty to search eagerly for such materials as he can get, and to use them with ingenuity; and it is the inspector's duty to encourage such resource, to help the less ingenious or baffled teacher, by suggesting to him new ways and means to utilize the third best, where the first and second best cannot be attained. Both inspector and teacher should make the most of their materials, remembering always that it is the bad workman who blames his tools. Meantime as a small but practical suggestion, let me recommend every teacher, who has not already got it, to get Hughes's *Geography of British History*, and see whether the use of such a book as that does not throw a new life into the geography lessons, both for teachers and scholars.

50. *Summary of Points in a Geography Lesson.*

To sum up. The following are briefly the kind of points which the inspector will bear in mind when inspecting a lesson in geography ;—

(1.) Is it a lesson on physical or political geography, or both ? If both, in what respective proportions ?

(2.) What preparation has been made for it by the scholars ? Are they supplied with the means of home preparation for their collective lessons, and required to use them ?

(3.) What preparation has been made for it by the teacher ? If it is a lesson on political geography, what has he sought out or read for the purpose of illustrating his lesson ?

(4.) Does he use the black board and a blank map ?

51. *Inspection of Singing.*—I have now followed the inspector in the course of his inspection of the boys' school to the close of morning school, when the time has arrived for him to hear the singing of the school and watch the dismissal (see § 20). If the inspector is not musical, that is to say, if he has not been so endowed by nature and so trained as to be able to judge whether children sing in time and in tune, taking breath and delivering the voice properly, giving the right value to notes, and the right musical pronunciation to words, and keeping their parts honestly and yet concordantly in harmonies; unless, in short, he is at least so much of a musician, as to have a true ear, and to have learnt singing, he will not propose to inspect the singing of the school. A teacher who is musical will find out very speedily whether the inspector has or has not the requisite musical endowments. The older children will perceive it, and the effect will be injurious. To sit and listen to school singing and to make no remark upon it, or remarks which show want of musical discrimination, is worse than useless ; it is a waste of the inspector's time, and a lessening of his authority. No inspector ought to inspect in a subject in which he has not thought more, and does not know and feel more than those whom he inspects. An inspector, therefore,

who is not qualified to judge of the school singing will not waste his valuable time by listening to it. But every inspector can, if he chooses, do something for the cultivation of music in our schools, which will be much more valuable than "hearing school singing." He can, if he does not already possess the requisite knowledge, learn a grammar of music, the rudiments of the science ; and when he is asked by a teacher to listen to the singing of the scholars, he can reply, " No. But I will ask a few questions in music." In nine schools out of ten, I fear, in England (though not perhaps in Wales), this reply will cause dismay. The teacher will answer that his scholars sing only by ear. And if an unmusical inspector can use his influence to stop this unsatisfactory practice, and to introduce the proper and only really satisfactory way of teaching singing into a school, he will, in my opinion, however naturally unmusical, have done almost as much to advance the knowledge and culture of music in England, as he could have done under present circumstances if he were himself a musician. *What we want at present in our elementary schools is not 'so much singing by ear, as the power of reading music and some acquaintance with musical science.* And this every inspector who will take a little trouble can qualify himself to encourage and enforce.

52. *Close of the Morning School.*—If the inspector has not had an opportunity of watching a change during the course of the morning's inspection, he will make a point of carefully watching the dismissal at the close of the morning's school. And, when that is over, if he has any reason to think that he will be hurried at the close of the day's inspection, he will take that opportunity of speaking to the pupil-teachers and principal teacher, on the work which the pupil-teachers have done in the examination, on their teaching, and on the impressions

which his inspection has, so far, made on his mind. But it will be much better, of course, that he should do this at the close of the day, when his knowledge will be more complete ; and I will therefore defer treating of this part of the subject, till I come to the close of the day. An interval of at the very least an hour is desirable after such a morning's work as that I have described, both for the inspector and the school. And the inspector who intends to do a good afternoon's work, will not, if he can help it, allow it to be shortened.

53. *Inspection of a History Lesson. Importance of Home Work.*—On the re-assembling of the school at two o'clock, the inspector proceeds to hear the history lesson of the assistant-master (see § 20). This lesson will probably be designed to last from forty-five to sixty minutes. But it will be sufficient if the inspector gives about thirty minutes to it. I have already, in considering the inspection of the geography lesson (see § 47), spoken of the importance of making the children prepare such lessons beforehand. Some teachers, not only in elementary schools, but also, I am sorry to say, in training colleges, give their history lessons as mere lectures, without requiring any preparation for them on the part of their hearers. This is a great mistake. *A history lesson should be largely catechetical.* The class should be required to prepare beforehand a certain portion of an ordinary text-book. Then the teacher, having himself carefully read this portion of the book, and having also read in other books, and gone to any other available sources which will throw light upon that portion, and having made careful notes of such researches for the purpose of his lesson, will begin his lesson by questioning the class on what they ought to have prepared. Far from contenting himself with delivering to children, who

have given no previous thought or trouble to the matter, a mere cut-and-dried narrative, such as may be found better given in any ordinary school history, he will use every means in his power to draw this ordinary narrative out of the children. By a rapid fire of questions distributed throughout the class, and passed down to be answered ; by making the children take places as they answer successfully, and so creating a keen emulation among all the better members of the class ; by marking the successful answerers on the results of those places, or on some other method, so that the school prizes and rewards may depend in a measure on the pains they have taken with such lessons during the school term ; by encouraging every genuine effort to improve on the part of the backward members of his class, or those whose home circumstances are unfavourable to the preparation of home lessons; by praising diligence, and, if necessary, punishing idleness and confirmed indifference, he will endeavour *to make the children work and think for the lesson beforehand as much as possible*. It is impossible to overrate the importance of this effort on the teacher's part to make his class prepare for him out of school. And if I have dwelt somewhat persistently upon this matter, it is because, while I feel how important it is, as one of the best means of making the elementary school a really civilizing institution, I fear that it is much more common to neglect this rule of having lessons prepared at home, than it ought to be. A very great responsibility rests upon inspectors and managers of schools in this generation. It is in their power to secure, at all events in the case of a vast number of elementary schools, throughout the country, that the habit of study shall be introduced into the homes of the labouring class, by insisting on this method

of teaching subjects, such as history and geography, which are suitable for such home study. If the inspectors insist, at their annual inspection, and at their visits without notice, that subjects which can be, shall be taught in this manner in the schools of their districts, and if School Boards and managers of voluntary schools support the inspectors in this matter, the practice will soon become general.

54. *The Text-book to be learnt by the Children, and amplified by the Teacher.*—As he passes catechetically through the portion of history which his class has prepared from the text-book, the teacher will lose no opportunity of correcting and amplifying the brief narrative of the text-book, and of bringing out from his stores new details and things of interest, which shall breathe a life and reality into the subject. Most class textbooks treat of little but wars and insurrections, battles and sieges, and brief characters of kings and queens. *The teacher will introduce to the children's notice, while questioning them on what they find in their text-book, things which they do not find there; the lives, characters and works of persons less conspicuous than kings and queens ; the inventions, the arts, and the literature of the period ; the social condition of various classes, and many other matters which may tend to make the children think, and may destroy ignorant prejudices. He will dwell particularly on any period of the history, or any events, in which the men of the county or town in which the school is situated have played a prominent part, or in which the town, village, or neighbourhood of the school was the scene of action ; and will encourage the children, as far as possible, to notice carefully the topography of any country in which they may find themselves living or travelling, and to try and associate its features with events which have happened there. But it will not be till he has ques-*

tioned the children thoroughly on the text which they have prepared that he will give them anything like a lecture or a connected narrative.

55. *Dates must be learnt by the Children.*— Besides requiring the children to read over, and, as far as possible, to prepare for him the period of history on which the lesson is to be, *the teacher will insist on their learning the leading dates.* I am aware that many teachers pooh-pooh dates, and maintain that it is a waste of time to make children learn them; but I cannot agree with this view. The doctrine that dates need not be learnt is a consequence of the reaction against the old-fashioned method of teaching history, which used to be pursued in many schools and families, by making the children learn little else than dates. This method, of course, was unsatisfactory enough ; but the contrary method of not requiring the children to learn any dates at all is quite as unsatisfactory.

*Dates are to the study of history what the multiplication-table is to arithmetic.* They are an essential frame-work on which to build up, and keep sustained, all the scholar's historical learning, without which much of what he reads and hears will always be unmeaning and unfruitful. And dates, like the multiplication-table, should be acquired in childhood, while the memory is still vigorous and retentive. Some system of *memoria technica* for dates, metrical or otherwise, should be used in every school in which history is taught, and should be frequently recited in the upper part of the school just in the same way in which the multiplication-table is recited in the lower classes.

56. *Summary of Points in a History Lesson.* — Bearing in mind, then, these general principles as applicable to the teaching of history in elementary schools, the inspector, in proceeding to hear the history lesson of the assistant-master (see §

20), will consider, in addition, of course, to those points upon which I have already dwelt in speaking of the lessons given by the pupil-teachers (see § 21), so far as such points are applicable to the case of a history lesson, such points as the following, viz. :—

*First*, whether the lesson is catechetical, or merely a lecture.

*Secondly*, whether any and what system is adopted for making the children well versed in dates.

*Thirdly*, whether the children appear to have prepared well for the lesson, and whether the results of such preparation are well drawn out from them by the teacher ; and,

*Fourthly*, whether the teacher has carefully prepared the lesson, and shown resource in such preparation.

And if the assistant-master was not a pupil-teacher in this school, but passed his apprenticeship in some other school, the inspector will note carefully any differences which may be observable in his manner of teaching, and make them a matter of favourable or unfavourable comment to the principal teacher when speaking privately to him at the close of the day's work.

57. *Close of the Inspection.*—The inspector has now, at half-past two, gone through all the inspection of the school properly so-called. He has heard and criticized the teaching of the whole of the staff of teachers, except the principal teacher ; he has noted the discipline and order of the school, and, by his observations, combined with a study of the log-book, he has made himself acquainted with the whole system pursued in the school. He has taken careful notes, which he can amplify as soon as he has leisure, and which he can compare with his notes of last year, and with those of other schools. By making a programme of proceedings in his own mind he has got

through the maximum of work with the minimum waste of time, and, so far as the business of inspection is concerned, he is now in a position to report to the Education Department, and to discuss the school with the staff. The only part of the work of inspection as distinguished from examination, which he has not done, is the conference with the teachers. There remains, therefore, now, the examination of the scholars to be effected; and, on the hypothesis with which I started—that, while he is engaged in inspecting the boys' school, his assistant is examining the girls' school in the elementary subjects, and that he will have the next day to give to inspection of the girls' school, while his assistant is engaged in examining the boys school in elementary subjects—he proceeds next, after hearing the lessons of the teachers, to examine the school in geography, grammar, and history (see Appendix I.), and to conduct so much of the examination of the scholars in the upper part of the school in the higher subjects (see Appendix II.) as there is time for.

58. *Examination of the School in higher subjects : Advantage of conducting it Orally.*—An inspector who is thoroughly conversant with these subjects (Appendix II.) will generally avoid written examinations, and will examine in them orally as much as possible ; because he can cover much more ground in a much shorter space of time by means of an oral than of a written examination ; because he can, in an oral examination, have the advantage of making the teachers take a part in it ; and also because he can, by means of an oral examination, set the teachers an example of the right course to be pursued in handling a subject. But, then, in order to make such an oral examination really valuable and effective, the inspector should not only possess in himself the qualifications for handling a class which he

expects to find in the teachers, and be in fact himself a good practical teacher, but he should also be thoroughly conversant with the subjects in which he is to examine. It is by no means sufficient that he should have such a general knowledge of modern geography, English grammar, and English history as is ordinarily possessed by an educated English gentleman. He should have gone more thoroughly into the matter than this. He should not only have read and thought over these subjects for the special purpose of examining children in them, but he should be *well acquainted with the text-books used by teachers and scholars*. It is a rule of examination, though often, unfortunately, neglected by examiners, that the examiner should have read the editions which have been used as text-books by the examinee. And the lower the literary status of the examinee, and the more elementary his knowledge, the more important is it that this rule should be observed. It does not, of course, follow that, because he knows elementary school textbooks, the inspector should confine his questions strictly within their range, or be guided in his examination by their method. On the contrary, if he does so, he will sacrifice part of his usefulness as an inspector. But he should know what their range is, and be able, if necessary, to keep within it, in order that he may fully understand what it is reasonable to expect of the scholars, and what should be their range of knowledge if they have been fairly diligent, and may thus be able to estimate the precise value of the results which he obtains in his examination.

Any inspector who is, by such knowledge of the subjects as this, and by his other qualifications, a good examiner, will do as much of his examination as he can orally, and will resort to written examinations only under special circumstances. *He will call upon the teachers to assist him in such oral examinations,*

selecting, for this purpose, those of the teachers about whom he has found in the course of his inspection that he requires to know more. And in the case of the large school which I have been supposing (see § 20), he will be very particular to entrust some part of the oral examination to the principal teacher, one of whose main duties in the school ought to be the reviewing of all the classes, and so ascertaining by examination how they are progressing. By requiring the principal teacher to conduct part of the examination in his presence, the inspector will often be able to discover the true cause of a fault in the method of instruction pursued in the school, and to speak about it to the principal teacher at the close of the day's inspection with much more effect than he otherwise could. And if the inspector is a really good examiner, the principal teacher will, if he knows that he will be required to take part with him in the examination, endeavour, in preparation for that ordeal, to work himself, his staff, and his scholars, up to the requisite standard. *Good teachers will always be found anxious enough to take part in an oral examination of their scholars.*

The inspector, when conducting an oral examination in any of these subjects (see Appendix II.), will have it in his power to do much to enforce, by the line he takes in his examination, a proper method of teaching them in the school. In fact, if his advice and exhortations to the teachers are to have their full and proper effect, it is absolutely necessary that he should be able to drive them home by means of his examinations. Take, for example, the case of English grammar. If the inspector, when examining, say, the third standard, in the noun, verb, and adjective, as required by the 28th article of the New Code (see Appendix I.), conducts his examination on the basis of the analysis of a simple sentence, and on the supposition that

the children will have been taught in some such way as that I have described (see § 29), the teachers will be almost forced to abandon their defective methods of teaching, and at least to make an attempt to follow out the plan which the inspector considers the best. And so through all the subjects—one of the great advantages of oral examination in experienced and skilful hands is that it serves to indicate to the whole school, in a public and unmistakable manner, the points to which, in the inspector's judgment, their attention should be called in respect of their teaching of those subjects, and illustrates to them the advantage of the principles which the inspector desires to enforce.

59. *Conference with the Teachers.*—I have now arrived, in my description of the inspection of a boys' school, at the close of the day's work, when the scholars are dismissed and the inspector is left alone with the teachers. And now follows what, if the inspector is to be anything more than a mere detective of faults, I must regard as one of the most important parts of his duties, viz.— the duty of calling the whole staff of the school before him, and speaking to them respecting the impressions which he has formed of the condition of the school, and of their work in it. It is in my judgment impossible to overrate the importance of this interview between the inspector and the school staff. The praise which an inspector is then able to bestow, and the blame which he feels it necessary to give, will have more effect than the communications which are made to the managers from Whitehall. It is impossible for the inspector to embody all the remarks he would wish to make on a school in his report to the Department ; and, if he could do so, it would be impossible for the Department to transmit them to the managers. Besides, observations made orally, on

the spot, while all the events of the inspection are fresh in the minds of all the actors, and made immediately to the teachers by the inspector, come home to the teachers' minds much more strongly than the summary sent down by the Department can do. The inspector who feels the importance of this part of his duty will make a point of not hurrying over it. And now that inspectors are able to pay visits to schools without notice, there is no reason why it ever should be hurried over. If the inspector is pressed for time, he can easily find half-an-hour for this duty on another day. And, indeed, there will be some advantage in his coming back to the school for this business on a later day, as he can then have looked over the papers which have been worked for him by the older scholars, and can therefore speak to the teachers on the results of the examination, as well as of the inspection.

60. *Inquiry into Instruction of Pupil-Teachers.* —The inspector will make a point of bringing with him the papers which have been worked by the pupil-teachers at the collective examination, all ready looked over and marked. He will read from them any answers or parts of answers which he has noticed as particularly good or bad ; the good for the encouragement of the diligent, and as an example of the most practical kind to the rest of the staff ; the bad for the purpose of making the idle feel ashamed of their idleness or carelessness. He will show the papers to the principal teacher, and will comment on them ; *pointing out how such questions ought to be answered, and suggesting ways of doing better in future.* I have known

pupil-teachers who were made to bestir themselves and take pains with their studies by the fear of having to pass through this ordeal, on whom all other means of threatening and exhortation had failed ; and who, but for this resource,

would probably have had to be dismissed from the service. The inspector will inquire into the time given to the instruction of the pupil-teachers, and the place and other circumstances of such instruction ; and, generally, will investigate anything in respect of which the papers suggest to him that improvement is required.

61. *Consideration and Discussion of their Faults in Teaching.*—When he has done with the papers of the pupil-teachers he will speak to them about their teaching ; ask them to explain anything in respect of which there has not been time for inquiring during the inspection ; *point out to them, what mistakes they make; and, above all, tell them what his experience suggests as the best way of doing anything which he thinks they do amiss.* All such points as those which I have gone through in describing the different parts of the process of inspection will have been noted by him in his notebook, and can be made the subject of most useful hints to the teachers.

62. *Consideration of the Condition of the School with the Principal Teacher.*—Lastly, when he has finished with the pupil-teachers, the inspector will see the principal teacher alone, or in the presence of managers only : *will tell him plainly what defects and what merits he finds in the school ; will say how much of such defects he considers to be due to neglect or other fault on his part; and will ask him to offer any explanation or excuse*

he has to make in palliation, of anything that has been found seriously amiss. He will encourage him to state his special difficulties, if he has any, and to ask advice, if there is any matter in respect of which he is puzzled or uninformed. An inspector who will take pains to do this part of his work with earnestness, and yet with genial good temper and impartiality,

may form as high a standard, and be as severe in his requirements, as he pleases. No matter how high his requirements or how severe his standard, he will be regarded with respectful affection by the teachers in his district ; and will be able to feel, when he leaves it, that he has not wholly missed his opportunity of doing some good work for his country.

APPENDIX  
STANDARDS OF EXAMINATION.

|           | Standard I.   | Standard II.   | Standard III.  | Standard IV.  | Standard V.  | Standard VI.  |
|-----------|---|--|--|---|--|---|
| 28.       | To read a short paragraph from a book not confined to words of one syllable.  | To read with intelligence a short paragraph from an elementary reading-book.                                     | To read with intelligence a short paragraph from a more advanced reading-book.   | To read with intelligence a few lines of poetry selected by the inspector.                          | Improved readings; and (in day schools) recitation of not less than seventy-five lines of poetry.  | Reading with fluency and expression; and (in day schools) recitation of not less than fifty lines of prose, or one hundred of poetry. |
| Reading.* |   |  |  |   | N.B.—The passages for recitation may be taken from one or more standard authors, previously approved by the inspector. Meaning and allusions to be known, and if well known   to atone for deficiencies of memory. |   |
| Writing.  | Copy in manuscript character a line of print, on slates or in copy-books, at choice of managers; and write from dictation a few common words. | A sentence from the same book, slowly read once, and then dictated. Copy-books (large or half-text) to be shown. | A sentence slowly dictated once from the same book. Copy-books to be shown (small hand, capital letters, and figures). | Eight lines slowly dictated once from a reading-book. Copy-books to be shown (improved small hand). | Writing from memory the substance of a short story read out twice; spelling, grammar, and handwriting to be considered.  | A short theme or letter; the composition, spelling, grammar, and handwriting to be considered.  |

|   |   |  |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| <p>Arithmetic.</p>                      | <p>Simple addition and subtraction of numbers of not more than four figures, and the multiplication-table, to six times twelve.</p> | <p>The four simple rules to short division (inclusive).</p>                          | <p>Long division and compound addition and subtraction (money).</p>   | <p>Compound rules (money) and reduction (common weights and measures).</p>  | <p>Practice, bills of parcels, and simple proportion.</p>   | <p>Proportion, vulgar and decimal fractions.</p>  |
| <p>Grammar, Geography, and History.</p> |   | <p>(1.) To point out the nouns in the passage read.</p>                              | <p>(1.) To point out the nouns, verbs, and adjectives.</p>  | <p>(1.) Parsing of a simple sentence.</p>   | <p>(1.) Parsing, with analysis of a "simple" sentence.</p>  | <p>(1.) Parsing and analysis of a short "complex" sentence.</p>   |
|   |   | <p>(2.) Definitions of compass, form and motions of earth, the meaning of a map.</p> | <p>(2.) Outlines of geography of England, with special knowledge of the county in which the school is situated.</p> | <p>(2) Outlines of geography of Great Britain, Ireland, and Colonies, (3.) Outlines of History of England to Norman Conquest.</p> | <p>(2.) Outlines of geography of Europe — Physical and political. (3.) Outlines of History of England from Norman Conquest to accession of Henry VII.</p> | <p>(2.) Outlines of geography of The World. (3.) Outlines of History of England from Henry VII. to death of George III.</p> |

\* Reading will be tested in the ordinary class books, if approved by the inspector; but these books must be of reasonable length and difficulty and unmarked. If they are not so, books brought by the inspector will be used. Every class ought to have two or three sets of reading-books. The class examination (Article 19 C.) will be conducted so as to show the intelligence, and not the mere memory of the scholars. The new subjects introduced into Article 28 are mainly taken, with the same object, from the 4th Schedule (specific subjects) in the Code of 1874.

\* The “weights and measures” taught in public elementary schools should be only such as are really useful—such as Avoirdupois Weight, Long Measure, Liquid Measure, Time Table, Square and Cubical Measures, and any measure which is connected with the industrial occupations of the district

(1.) *To point out the nouns in the ;passage read.*

(2.) *Definitions, points of compass, form and motions of earth, the meaning of a map.*

(1.) *To point out the nouns, rerbs, and adjectives.*

(2.) *Outlines of geography of England, with special knowledge of the county in which the school is situated.*

(1.) *Parsing of a simple sentence.*

(2.) *Outlines of geography of Great Britain, Ireland, and Colonies,*

(3.) *Outlines of History of England to Norman Conquest.*

(1.) *Parsinflr, with analysis of a . “ simple ” sentence.*

(2.) *Outlines of geography of Europe — Physical and political.*

(3.) *Outlines of History of England from Norman Conquest to accession of Henry VII.*

(1.) *Parsing and analysis of a short “ complex ” sentence.*

(2.) *Outlines of geography of The World.*

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